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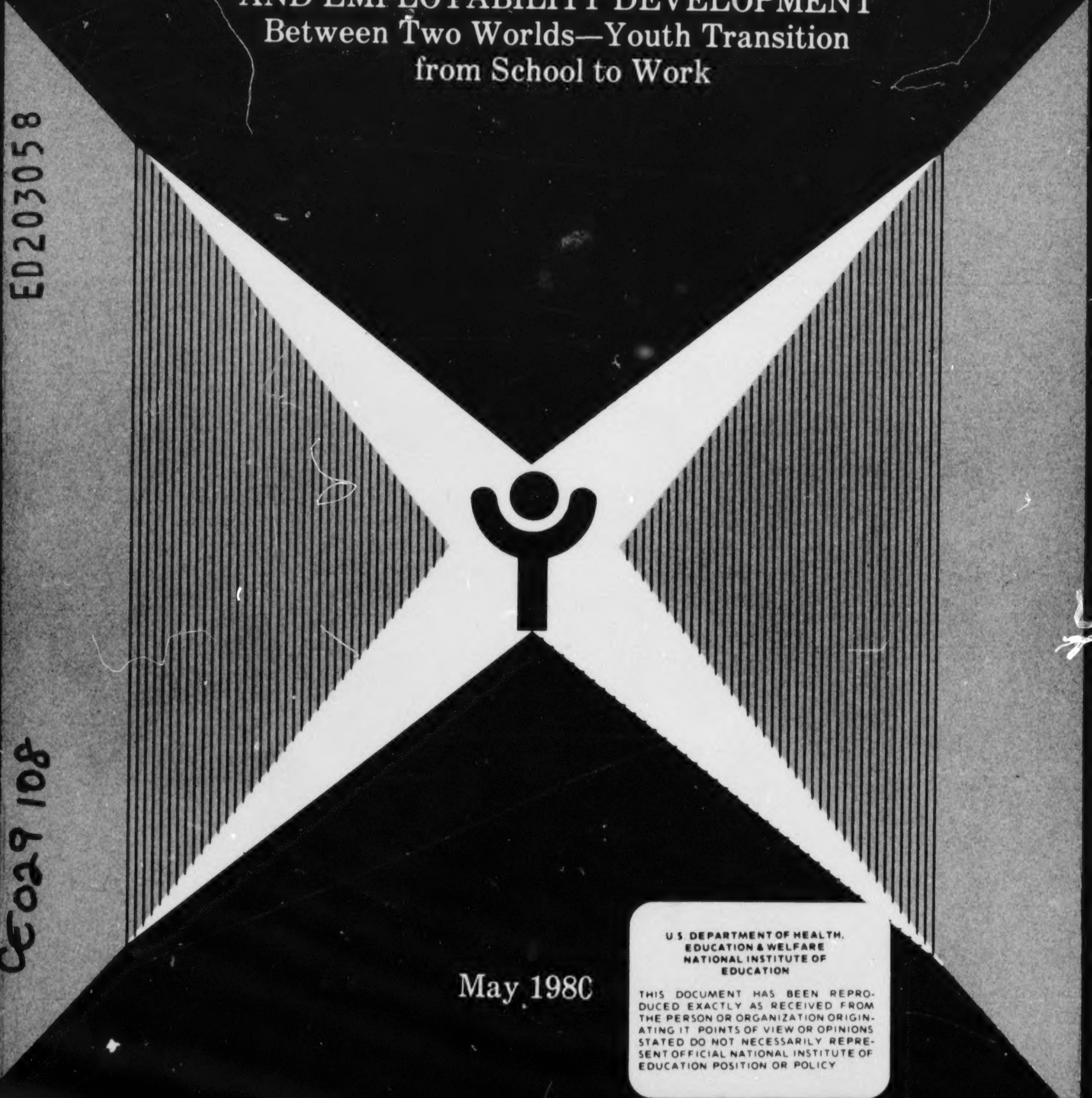
ABSTRACT

The Youth Employment and Demonstration Projects Act of 1977 (YEDPA) authorized a range of research, evaluation, and demonstration activities to increase understanding of the employment problems of youth and to help determine the most effective policies and programs to address these problems. A major knowledge development objective under YEDPA was to first take stock of what we know about youth employment and employability development problems and the approaches to overcoming them. This report provides an interpretive analysis of the information on the subject as well as guidance concerning directions for further knowledge development under YEDPA. Part 1 of this report addresses the problem and its multiple dimensions. In contrast to many other analyses that focus primarily on statistical measures of the dimensions of youth unemployment and participation levels under employment and training programs, this review emphasizes the underpinnings--developmental factors and how they impinge on each individual's preparation for the world of work; the linkage and transition institutions and how they operate, including the critical role of laws, regulations, and other public policies affecting youth employment; the multiple forces shaping the youth labor market, and youth preparation for it; and the underlying labor market theories and research covering their validity. Part 2 reviews program evaluations concerning experience-based learning, and education, training, and transition services. (KC)

YOUTH KNOWLEDGE DEVELOPMENT REPORT

RESEARCH ON YOUTH EMPLOYMENT AND EMPLOYABILITY DEVELOPMENT

Between Two Worlds—Youth Transition from School to Work



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Ernest G. Green, Assistant Secretary for
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YOUTH KNOWLEDGE DEVELOPMENT REPORT 2.3

BETWEEN TWO WORLDS - YOUTH TRANSITION FROM SCHOOL TO WORK

Paul E. Barton
Bryna Shore Frazer

National Manpower Institute

April 1980

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OVERVIEW

Almost everyone agrees that there is a serious youth employment problem and that something must be done. Yet, there is equally widespread agreement that we lack understanding of the causes, consequences and cures--knowledge which is necessary for effective action. As one editorial put it, we have spent $40 billion on youth employment and employability development over the last 15 years, yet the problem remains and we do not even know what works and what does not. The Youth Employment and Demonstration Projects Act (YEDPA) of 1977 reflected this ambivalence. It provided significant resources to expand employment and training opportunities for youth. Indeed, it accounted for almost all the employment growth for minority teenagers in 1978 and 1979. Yet, this was a "demonstration Act," premised on the notion that we needed to experiment and evaluate further before committing ourselves to permanent policies.

Without minimizing the importance of further knowledge development in order to fine-tune public policies, one might question this conventional wisdom that we lack the basis for policy formulation. There are more data available on the youth employment issue than almost any other social welfare subject. Thousands of careful experiments have been conducted on all aspects of the problem over the last decade. Evaluations and analyses can fill a fair-sized library. Compared with our understanding of other domestic issues--the problems of older persons, of family status and change, of undocumented workers, of wealth distribution, or countless other subjects--we have quite comprehensive knowledge about youth employment. There was one year in the 1960's, for instance, when the Congressional hearings on the Job Corps were more voluminous than those on the entire defense budget.

It would appear that the problem is not the volume or even quality of information on the subject of youth employment, but rather the failure to translate and synthesize the information for public policy formulation. Rather than a knowledge deficit, there is, if anything, a knowledge and information overload. The greater the inquiry into any social science area, the more complex the subject becomes, the more questions are raised, and the less satisfying the answers because they are always subject to equivocation. Youth employment is also a confoundingly interrelated subject. It does not just concern jobs. It involves education, family status, developmental patterns, and much, much more. The problems of youth unemployment are intertwined with economic changes, the welfare problem, illegitimacy, drug abuse, inadequate schools, declining cities and almost every other social pathology. Any discussion tends to quickly lose focus and

and to be impervious to resolution because there are so many perspectives which can be and have been applied to the same information.

A major knowledge development objective under YEDPA was, therefore, to first take stock of what we know about youth employment and employability development problems and the approaches to overcoming them.

Between Two Worlds - Youth Transition From School to Work provides an interpretative analysis of the information on the subject as well as guidance concerning directions for further knowledge development under YEDPA. The study by the National Manpower Institute was commissioned by the Office of Policy, Evaluation and Research in the Employment and Training Administration. The original volumes have been reordered somewhat for inclusion in this series, separating those parts recommending a research and experimentation strategy from those analyzing problems and programs. The original volumes are available from the National Manpower Institute.

Part 1 of this report addresses the problem and its multiple dimensions. In contrast to many other analyses which focus primarily on statistical measures of the dimensions of youth unemployment and participation levels under employment and training programs, this review emphasizes the underpinnings--developmental factors and how they impinge on each individual's preparation for the world of work; the linkage and transition institutions and how they operate, including the critical role of laws, regulations and other public policies affecting youth employment; the multiple forces shaping the youth labor market and youth preparation for it; and the underlying labor market theories and research covering their validity.

Part 2 reviews program evaluations concerning experience-based learning, and education, training and transition services. While the separate studies rarely provide reliable and rigorous conclusions, together they are suggestive of the state-of-the art and provide some sense of the effectiveness of alternative interventions.

This volume is one of the products in support of the "knowledge development" effort implemented under the mandate of the Youth Employment and Demonstration Projects Act of 1977. The knowledge development effort consists of hundreds of separate research, evaluation and demonstration activities which will result in literally thousands of written products. The activities have been structured from the outset so that each is self-standing but also interrelated with a host of other activities. The framework is presented in A Knowledge Development Plan for the Youth Employment and Demonstration Projects Act of 1977, A Knowledge Development Plan for the Youth Initiatives Fiscal 1979 and Completing the Youth Agenda: A Plan for Knowledge Development, Dissemination and Application for Fiscal 1980.

Information is available or will be coming available from these various knowledge development efforts to help resolve an almost limitless array of issues. However, policy and practical application will usually require integration and synthesis from a wide array of products, which, in turn, depends on knowledge and availability of these products. A major shortcoming of past research, evaluation and demonstration activities has been the failure to organize and disseminate the products adequately to assure the full exploitation of the findings. The magnitude and structure of the youth knowledge development effort puts a premium on structured analysis and wide dissemination.

As part of its knowledge development mandate, therefore, the Office of Youth Programs of the Department of Labor will organize, publish and disseminate the written products of all major research, evaluation and demonstration activities supported directly by or mounted in conjunction with OYP knowledge development efforts. Some of the same products may also be published and disseminated through other channels, but they will be included in the structured series of Youth Knowledge Development Reports in order to facilitate access and integration.

The Youth Knowledge Development Reports, of which this is one, are divided into twelve broad categories:

1. Knowledge Development Framework: The products in this category are concerned with the structure of knowledge development activities, the assessment methodologies which are employed, the measurement instruments and their validation, the translation of knowledge into policy, and the strategy for dissemination of findings.

2. Research on Youth Employment and Employability Development: The products in this category represent analyses of existing data, presentation of findings from new data sources, special studies of dimensions of youth labor market problems, and policy issue assessments.

3. Program Evaluations: The products in this category include impact, process and benefit-cost evaluations of youth programs including the Summer Youth Employment Program, Job Corps, the Young Adult Conservation Corps, Youth Employment and Training Programs, Youth Community Conservation and Improvement Projects and the Targeted Jobs Tax Credit.

4. Service and Participant Mix: The evaluations and demonstrations summarized in this category concern the matching of different types of youth with different service combinations. This involves experiments with work vs. work plus remediation vs. straight remediation as treatment options. It also includes attempts to mix disadvantaged and more affluent participants, as well as youth with older workers.

5. Education and Training Approaches: The products in this category present the findings of structured experiments to test the impact and effectiveness of various education and vocational training approaches including specific education methodologies for the disadvantaged, alternative education approaches and advanced career training.

6. Pre-Employment and Transition Services: The products in this category present the findings of structured experiments to test the impact and effectiveness of school-to-work transition activities, vocational exploration, job-search assistance and other efforts to better prepare youth for labor market success.

7. Youth Work Experience: The products in this category address the organization of work activities, their output, productive roles for youth and the impacts of various employment approaches.

8. Implementation Issues: This category includes cross-cutting analyses of the practical lessons concerning "how-to-do-it." Issues such as learning curves, replication processes and programmatic "batting averages" will be addressed under this category, as well as the comparative advantages of alternative delivery agents.

9. Design and Organizational Alternatives: The products in this category represent assessments of demonstrations of alternative program and delivery arrangements such as consolidation, year-round preparation for summer programs, the use of incentives and multi-year tracking of individuals.

10. Special Needs Groups: The products in this category present findings on the special problems of and the programmatic adaptations needed for significant segments including minorities, young mothers, troubled youth, Indochinese refugees and the handicapped.

11. Innovative Approaches: The products in this category present the findings of those activities designed to explore new approaches. The subjects covered include the Youth Incentive Entitlement Pilot Projects, private sector initiatives, the national youth service experiment, and energy initiatives in weatherization, low-head hydroelectric dam restoration, windpower and the like.

12. Institutional Linkages: The products in this category include studies of institutional arrangements and linkages as well as assessments of demonstration activities to encourage such linkages with education, volunteer groups, drug abuse agencies and the like.

In each of these knowledge development categories, there will be a range of discrete demonstration, research and evaluation activities focused on different policy, program and analytical issues. In turn, each discrete knowledge development project may have a series of written products addressed to different dimensions of the issue. For instance, all experimental demonstration projects have both process and impact evaluations, frequently undertaken by different evaluation agents. Findings will be published as they become available so that there will usually be a series of reports as evidence accumulates. To organize these products, each publication is classified in one of the twelve broad knowledge development categories, described in terms of the more specific issue, activity or cluster of activities to which it is addressed, with an identifier of the product and what it represents relative to other products in the demonstrations. Hence, the multiple products under a knowledge development activity are closely interrelated and the activities in each broad cluster have significant interconnections.

Between Two Worlds - Youth Transition From School to Work provided the informational basis for recommendations by Barton and Frazer concerning knowledge development approaches under YEDPA. These recommendations are contained in A Research and Experimentation Strategy in the "knowledge development framework" category. The findings in this volume are closely related to all the other products in the "research on youth employment and employability development" category but particularly Employment and Training Programs for Youth - What Works Best for Whom? and A Review of Youth Employment Problems, Programs and Policies.

Robert Taggart
Administrator
Office of Youth Programs

PART I
PROBLEMS AND CONDITIONS

INTRODUCTION

Based on project staff investigations, three factors seem to encompass the range of problems, interactions, and conditions which affect youth's transition from school to work.

1. Individual Circumstances

   Individual youth are blessed or handicapped by the experiences they accumulate before the transition takes place. They have acquired a particular set of attitudes, have been reared in families with different levels of education and income, and are differently positioned with regard to the work world.

2. Institutions: Quality and Behavior

   A number of institutions have important impacts on the school-to-work transition. These institutions house the resources, services, and experiences which are so critical to a successful transition. Their success is a function of the quality of their performance and the degree to which they successfully relate to and complement each other as well as the extent to which they are responsive to the needs of youth versus other groups in the population.

3. Changes in Society

   Broad social and economic trends affect the ability of youth to make a successful work transition. These trends shape the extent and nature of youth opportunity.

The interaction among these elements is a dynamic process in which the alteration of one element will significantly change the nature of the process. If individual circumstances have been unfavorable, youth-serving institutions will strive to make up for those handicaps but will not always be able to overcome them. The Coleman and Jencks Reports, for example, indicate that the educational institutions have not been successful in making up for deficiencies resulting from family or community circumstance. If basic economic trends are adverse, those institutions which are involved in the transition process in some way find it more difficult to relate effectively to young people. Employing institutions, for a host of reasons, tend to focus on hiring those over 21 for adult type jobs, and youth-serving institutions, which provide such services as career guidance, counseling,and job placement, find it hard to be helpful because of an inhospitable economic environment. This, in turn, can result in an increasing disenchantment on the part of youth with those institutions involved in the transition process. When the quality of institutions' involvement with youth changes, there is inevitably an impact both on the individual circumstances of youth and on broad social and economic trends. So, these three factors of individual circumstance, institutions, and societal change affect the youth transition and each other.

Public policy regarding the transition from school to work must necessarily be concerned with all three of these factors and their interrelationships. To the extent that public policy can be informed by improved research knowledge, a research office is also concerned with all three areas.

Having identified these factors as "umbrella" concepts, the components of each were identified and available information was organized accordingly. The information search proceeded from this organization, but the final components used in Part I were also influenced by the search. Where information was not available, a component arbitrarily selected at the outset was either eliminated or merged with another component. The final set can be seen in the Table of Contents for Part I, since it served as the basis for presenting the findings.

In the title of Part I, both the words "problems" and "conditions" have been used. "Problems" only was deemed both insufficient and limiting. What is a problem to some would not be considered so by others. In addition, the approach of simply identifying problems leaves out a body of needed information about the dynamics of the process of youth transition; we need to know what's going on even if it is not properly classified as a "problem." The information search therefore broadened out to include "conditions" as well as "problems."

The previously identified three factors guided the information search and literature review, and the results are reported in the first three sections of this Part. There is also a fourth section entitled "Update: the Youth Labor Market." The introduction to that section explains its existence and why it was included. Briefly, it was felt that it would be useful to synthesize what economists have determined about the behavior of the youth labor market in the years since Edward Kalachek summarized the state of knowledge in 1969. This is done in Section Four, although time and resources did not permit the inclusion of all of the recent research identified by project staff.

SECTION 1
INDIVIDUAL CIRCUMSTANCE

Self-Esteem

The influence of self-esteem upon the functioning of youth in society and in their relationships with the work world has been the subject of a growing body of research.

In 1959, the case was made for the crucial need of adolescents for high self-esteem and the too common lack of that quality among the youth population (Friedenberg, 1959). Citing the built-in threats to self-esteem of youth (especially those with lower social status) in the society as a whole and in the schools in particular, Friedenberg states:

> The most tragic thing that happens to lower-status youngsters in school is that they learn to accept the prevailing judgement of their worth. They accept and internalize the social verdict on themselves...the school is merely the latest in a series of social institutions...that have been transmitting to the youth the same appraisal of himself.

This phenomenon of "negative labeling" has been cited as a major hazard to youth development in modern American society by the U.S. Department of Health, Education and Welfare's Office of Youth Development. According to a recent HEW sponsored report, such social institutions as the schools, the family, and juvenile justice system can and do contribute to the problem (Johnson, 1975). One study goes so far as to suggest that society's emphasis on the unique problems of adolescence and the highlighting of young people's assumed maladjustment can act in themselves as an umbrella negative label for the entire segment of the population known as "youth" (Lipsitz, 1977).

A comprehensive review and synthesis of research on self-esteem can be found in the National Institute of Child Health and Human Development's book entitled Perspectives on Human Deprivation (DHEW, 1968). Referring to various studies, the report links the development of low self-esteem in youth to family disorganization, economic disadvantage, racial prejudice and social rejection, and lists lower achievement levels, lower vocational expectations, and general lack of confidence as more common to youth with low levels of self-esteem.

Self-esteem as related to racial group has been the topic of several studies reviewed for this report. The findings vary and are not comparable due to differences in the age groups studied. One survey of low income black youth 16-21 years concluded that the subject in the low socioeconomic bracket was more likely to exhibit low self-esteem; this in turn "impairs his ability to seek and hold jobs, erodes his commitment to work and depresses his aspirations" (Herman, 1967). A later survey of high school seniors disputes the negative labeling theory mentioned earlier, at least in terms of labeling based on racial discrimination. According to this study, a low level of self-esteem did not seem to be associated with whether or not a black youth identified himself in externally imposed racial terms, and class of occupation (white-collar, blue-collar, etc.) did not seem to be linked with racial self-image (Cummings, 1975). Another study, this time of disadvantaged black fifth graders, concluded:

> It is probably indisputable that race and socioeconomic level are variables that can affect self-esteem when mediated by negative social attitudes. What seems clear, however, is that their influence is more situation specific and that with positive home, peer and school relationships it appears possible for some black disadvantaged children to maintain high self-esteem (Morse and Piers, 1973).

The issue is obscured even further by a study done by Morris Rosenberg in 1971 which compares the self-esteem of black and white students and concludes that racial segregation in school and society does not damage the self-esteem of black children. The study suggests that segregation provides a "contextual consonance" in which black youth in a sheltered environment can inflate their socioeconomic and racial status, thereby protecting their self-esteem. Citing the findings of 12 earlier studies and comparing them with his own, the author concludes: "...that there are no appreciable differences in racial self-esteem" (Rosenberg, 1971).

There obviously exists some substantial variation in conclusions drawn by research into this area, but the studies do agree that degree of self-esteem is a factor that affects youth's interactions with the broader society.

Parents

Research has been conducted on the effects of various parental variables on the work orientations and aspirations of teenage children.

Although the studies reviewed differ in method, parental variables tested, and sex and socioeconomic status of the children involved, their conclusions nevertheless support the hypothesis that the attitudes and life situations of parents are an important factor in the development of their children's relationships with the work world.

In the national longitudinal survey of the high school class of 1972, sons of fathers who did not attain a high school diploma were found more likely to report a poor sense of control over their environments, a feeling that they lacked the ability to complete college, and lower grade point averages in school. These students more often perceived a lack of parental interest in their situation and lower parental aspirations for the length of their education. In addition, those youth with lower parental education levels reported that they were in vocational or general rather than academic programs and that counselors and teachers encouraged them to go into all areas but college (DHEW, 1975e). A study of family background factors that predict dropping out of school found a high correlation between socioeconomic family level, parental punitiveness, and dropout behavior. It concluded that if a boy is the son of dropouts, he stands a better than average chance of becoming a dropout himself, and that the better a boy reports getting along with his parents, the higher will be his self-esteem, his self-concept of school ability, his attitudes toward school,and his feelings of personal efficacy (Bachman, 1971).

Several studies address the special problems of the black family, particularly the absence of a father in the home and the greater possibility that the family may be on welfare, thus depriving the children of any working parental role models. A study of work orientations of sons of welfare mothers as compared with sons of outer-city white families shows that welfare mothers have certainly no less influence and, in many cases, more influence than outer-city white parents on identification of their sons with the work ethic. The welfare experience and lack of working role models were shown not to destroy sons' positive orientations toward work. However, the study also showed that welfare mothers tend to transmit a lack of confidence and an acceptance of welfare dependence which together create obstacles to academic and work achievement (Goodwin, 1972). A similar study found that parental satisfaction levels with their own lives and occupational status will better predict their sons' occupational aspirations and expectations than will parents' present income or occupational status. Also, the study reported that the availability of an adult male role model, not necessarily a present father, is positively correlated with high self-esteem, school performance,and aspirations of black male youth (Rosenthal, 1971).

An abundance of material is available on the effects of working mothers on their children's attitudes toward work. The commonly shared conclusion is that, for both blacks and whites, the effect of the working mother on daughters' work orientations was not detrimental and, depending on the amount and quality of mother/daughter interaction, was often positive (Morgan, 1976). Studies found correlations between working mothers and their daughters' tendencies toward independence, self-reliance, higher academic and career aspirations, and higher achievement levels (Hoffman, 1974; Lipsitz, 1977). One study cited negative modeling effects on black girls whose mothers worked in blue-collar jobs (Macke, 1975). All of the studies reviewed agree that the mothers' behavior was a crucial variable in the determination of the attitudes of their daughters toward work.

It is important to mention here a bias in the research which became evident during the course of this review. Much of the work done on the effects of parental variables on children's work orientations groups the sexes - father/son, mother/daughter. This may be an area for expanded research on father/daughter, mother/son impacts.

Economic Disadvantage

Economically disadvantaged youth, especially in the central cities and in rural areas, are faced with an environment full of roadblocks to success in the work world. The urban situation is summarized succinctly by a recent Congressional report:

> In low income areas, the labor market prospects for teenagers are especially bleak because there is a whole confluence of negative factors at work. The local economies are weak. Family incomes are low and family structures may be weak. The welfare system accentuates dependency and discourages efforts to earn. The quality of education available to youth is inadequate, and examples of success for young people are few. Crime abounds to plague the residents and to tempt the young with financial gains that are greater and easier than those from legitimate pursuits(CBO, 1976b).

Many of these points are echoed by other sources in the recent literature.

Educational quality is more likely to be poor in low income areas (Downs, 1970). Vocational education is limited in scope and effectiveness (Mangum, 1971). Failing tax bases in very urban and very rural areas, where the greatest numbers of economically disadvantaged children reside, result in an inequality of education which a few years later aggravates income inequalities (Downs, 1970).

Job opportunities in poor neighborhoods are primarily concentrated in the secondary labor market of poorly paid, transient work without potential for upward mobility (CED, 1970). The movement of employers to the suburbs aggravates the problem (Wallace, 1974; NCMP, 1976; CBO, 1976b). Public transportation to the work area is not always available (Downs, 1970). The effectiveness of economic development programs within low income neighborhoods is questionable (NCMP, 1976).

In response to the lack of conventional labor market opportunities and in a daily atmosphere of crime and violence, disadvantaged urban youth often turn to the street life or "hustling" to make money (Matthews, 1971; CBO, 1976b). This increases the likelihood of obtaining a police record which then becomes a further barrier to legitimate employment.

Poverty often forces youth out of school at an early age and into poorly paid work to supplement family income (Downs, 1970). According to a recent study, a relatively high percentage of unemployed and out-of-school teenagers come from families with low incomes (CBO, 1976b).

Inadequate diet and poor physical health also go hand in hand with insufficient income, with obviously negative effects on the in-school performance of poor children (DHEW, 1968; CED, 1971).

According to a National Institute of Child Health and Human Development study:

> What makes the culture of poverty unique is not simply the concentration of these characteristics among the poor, but in addition and perhaps more importantly, the fact that these behavior patterns are rational responses to the condition of deprivation, are part of their life style, and are handed down through generations. The degradation, continuity and segregation of the poor serve to identify them as a separate culture (DHEW, 1968).

Racial Discrimination

Racial discrimination as an important factor affecting the socioeconomic position of minorities is demonstrated bv various studies and reports.

Several sources cite inadequate educational attainment and inferior skill acquisition among minorities as the result of a discriminatory social structure affecting schools and training institutions (Levitan, 1975; NCMP, 1976a). According to recent Congressional Budget Office reports, both lower educational levels of blacks and other minority groups and the low quality of schooling received by them contribute to the large unemployment rate differential between minority and white labor force participants (CBO, 1976 a and 1976b). Views do differ, however, regarding the degree to which racial discrimination affects educational attainment. It has been proposed that the overall difference between black and white educational attainment levels is narrowing and is not linked to minority group membership (Jencks, 1972).

The high proportion of non-whites employed in low-status jobs also is attributed in part to racial discrimination (CBO, 1976a). Although some progress has been made in this area, particularly among black women, the greatest gains were made in the least prestigious and lowest paid occupations. The rising black teenage unemployment rate, however, has balanced the progress made by other age groups (Levitan, 1975). Employer discrimination in the form of tests and reference checks also affects the ability of minorities to break out of the secondary labor market (CBO, 1976a). One recent article argues that employers consciously or unconsciously support the current economic status system by trying to "make the race-sex pattern in (the) workplace conform to the general social pattern of hierarchical relations" (Bergman, 1976).

These patterns of discriminatory practices and structures have been cited as an important factor in the lowering of aspirations and expectations among minority group members (Wallace, 1974; Bergmann, 1976). Discrepancies between the high aspirations and low expectations of black high school students have been attributed to a realistic self-assessment of social barriers to their success in the current economic system (MacMichael, 1974).

Access to Information

Recent research into the provision of useful and accurate occupational/labor market information for youth indicates that the problem can be broken down into two categories: (1) a lack of certain types of data, specifically data geared to local labor markets, and (2) often ineffective delivery systems for available information.

Lack of localized labor market information is cited by several authors as one of the most pressing and practical needs to be filled in the resource systems available to youth entering the job market (Wirtz, 1975). This is true especially for non-college bound youth who tend to function within a more limited geographic labor market (Barton, 1976; Wolfbein, 1976). Also, there is a need for expansion of existing federal occupational data to reflect the unique information requirements of youth as a special population subgroup (Wirtz, 1975; NCLC, 1976). There is room for increased interagency cooperation in provision and use of data; in certain cases the current tendency is for agencies to ignore potential opportunities for cooperation (Wirtz, 1975; Wolfbein, 1976).

The other half of the problem is insuring delivery of available information to unemployed youth. Most students get little exposure to written information or career counseling within the school setting (Wolfbein, 1976). Traditionally, where guidance is available, the vocational focus of the program is secondary in importance to academic counseling for college-oriented youth (Kaufman, 1967). A 1976 report makes similar observations on the current situation regarding in-school exposures of students to quality vocational guidance (Wolfbein, 1976).

Parnes, in a recent study, summarizes his findings on the contribution of school system guidance to the meeting of students' occupational information needs as follows:

> From the standpoint of public policy, the absence of a relationship between the extent of vocational counseling in the high schools and occupational information test scores is disheartening. While this clearly does not mean that vocational counseling in American high schools offers no benefits, it does suggest that if counseling makes a contribution it is not by enhancing to any perceptible degree the general understanding students have of the world of work (Parnes, 1975).

The school is the major provider of occupational information for youth in the community. Other sources outside the school, including the U.S. Employment Service, provide varying degrees of service; the need for more effective and comprehensive services from extra-school delivery systems is crucial, particularly for youth who are no longer formally affiliated with the schools (Wolfbein, 1976).

An excellent summary of the current status of research in this area is Lois-ellin Datta's 1975 article "Improved Labor Market Information and Career Choice: Issues in Program Evaluation." It points up the need for reliable measures for evaluating outcomes of exposure to various types of occupational information from different sources. Current studies are not standardized in regard to what is being measured, age groups involved, etc., making comparison difficult and valid corroboration of results very rare.

Young and Female

The participation of women in the labor force has been the topic of substantial research in recent years. Most of the literature discusses the status of women as a group, without drawing distinctions between age subgroups. A few studies, however, do address the special problems that young women encounter in their transition to economic adulthood. This summary of a cross section of the literature will draw from studies dealing with both the larger and more age-specific groups.

The literature suggests two major reasons for the acknowledged disadvantages of women in the work world. The first is sex role socialization, a process which begins at birth, continues throughout life,and is reinforced by social institutions, particularly the schools and the family. In addition, the structure of the American labor market and the biases of employers relegate women, for the most part, to narrowly defined work opportunities and compensation levels.

Sex role socialization is cited repeatedly as having an extremely strong impact on the individual woman's interaction with her surroundings, especially her dealings with work. "Pressure to conform to one's sexual stereotype pervades schools, media, jobs, social situations as well as family life and continues from infancy through adulthood" (Goldberg, 1974). One theory links a pattern of underachievement of high school girls to societal emphasis on intellectual achievement as being unfeminine (Goldberg, 1974). The result is a lack of confidence and low self-esteem. "They (young women) are channeled, not only by overt discrimination but also by an internalized sense of their own inadequacy, into secondary, non-initiating, serving roles in the work force and in the home" (Goldberg, 1974).

The schools tend to encourage this destructive societal stereotyping in a variety of ways: through restrictive course offerings, stereotyping in curriculum materials, guidance and counseling biases, and personal attitudes of teachers and administrators (DHEW, 1975f).

Vocational education in particular is heavily criticized for its failure to adapt to the new realities of a growing female labor force. Vocational programs tend to channel young women into traditional female tracks (clerical and homemaking programs) and to provide only limited opportunities for exposure to trade and industrial programs. Vocational school programs indicate an acceptance of the larger society's attitudes regarding the appropriate role of women in the labor market. This message is passed on to the female student, thus restricting her vocational self-concept and dampening her aspirations to develop skills useful to society and essential to personal satisfaction (Kaufman, 1967; DHEW, 1975f).

The labor market situation of women is analyzed by several researchers, with the general conclusion being that for various reasons, women have been and are grossly underutilized and discriminated against with respect to their potential for contribution to the economy. Factors which serve to relegate women to a very limited and lower status range of the broader occupational spectrum include the following: lack of access to training courses available to male workers; employer discrimination on the basis of perceived higher turnover rates; lack of stability attributed to women workers; cultural biases against opening up opportunities for women in traditionally male occupational areas; and lower levels of unionization (Sawhill, 1974; Bergman, 1976; and DHEW, 1976). This situation in turn is responsible in large part for extreme disparity in earnings of male and female workers (Sawhill, 1974; Bergman, 1976).

Sex discrimination has especially severe impacts on economically disadvantaged women, especially those with children. At the very bottom of the labor market status lineup are black female teenagers. Their difficulties in securing work are attributed to a number of factors, including:

1) poor service by public employment and training agencies;
2) low quality in-school counseling;
3) employer perceptions of young black women as "employment risks;"
4) perceived and actual racial discrimination;
5) lack of occupational information;
6) tendency of programs for the economically disadvantaged to be geared toward present or future male heads of households (Wallace, 1974).

Inadequate attention by the federal government to the problems of low income women is cited as a serious block in the development of this group's potential for societal contribution. "The fact that low income women are almost invisible in statistical terms suggests that they are all but unseen programmatically as well -- a suggestion that seems borne out by examination of particular federal programs" (DHEW, 1976d).

For example, a major difficulty for young women with children is the absence of child care. Obtaining day care is a logistical problem, especially for mothers in rural areas (DHEW, 1975e). Difficulties cited, regardless of geographic location, include transportation arrangements, lack of services for infants, and the general inadequate capacities of centers (Hoffman, 1974; Wallace, 1974). Also, child care centers do not fill the need for temporary or drop-in care for the woman who works part-time (DHEW, 1975e).

Much-used alternatives to formal day care include a variety of informal arrangements; placing children with relatives or friends and having older children care for the younger ones are two common options. A study of Brooklyn women found that most of them used this informal system rather than licensed day care centers (Wallace, 1974).

The effects of increased formal day care are not clear. One recent study concludes that the provision of free and adequate day care services to low income mothers would lead to an increase in their labor force participation rates of about 10% (OEO, 1973). This was seen as representing a fairly low level of response on the part of the mother to the opportunity to re-enter or enter the work force and was attributed by the researchers to four factors:

1) mothers of young children have a generally low desire to enter the labor force;
2) the wage-subsidy effect of the provision of day care is low;
3) the AFDC structure offers inadequate incentives to work;
4) the addition of the working role may be too great a strain on the mother (OEO, 1973).

Rural Environments

According to Marshall (1976), the transition problems of rural youth are shaped by certain major conditions in the areas in which they live. The breakdown outlined here of some of the most crucial and widespread barriers to full development and utilization of young rural manpower is upheld by numerous studies made during the past fifteen years. The literature reviewed indicates that there are three critical problem areas affecting the fit of rural youth into the work world.

The rural economic base creates a number of problems for rural youth. The lack of occupational diversity means that few job and on-the-job training opportunities are available and that role models for jobs other than farmwork, marginal, and blue-collar positions are scarce (Marshall, 1976). Private sector employment opportunities are severely limited, and although the increased location of manufacturing plants in rural areas, especially in the Southeast, has resulted in somewhat more diversified employment opportunities, a large proportion of the new jobs are going to workers imported from urban areas (Miles, 1973). The problem is compounded by inferior labor market information systems and inadequate educational preparation.

The need for more accurate and complete labor market information and occupational counseling in rural areas has been stressed by several researchers (Nelson, 1963; Rogers, 1969; Miles, 1973; Marshall, 1976). Responses from a 1974 survey of rural youth indicated that the 800 male and female high school seniors in the sample had: very limited understanding of the world of work; insecurity and suspicion about their future labor market participation; and lack of familiarity with the federal-state employment service. The study went on to recommend that more effective use be made of the schools as a major world-of-work information channel (Darcy and Kauffman, 1974). A recent survey of job placement services provided by public school systems in the United States reveals that only 35% of the school districts with less than 2,500 students have such services as compared with 71% of districts with 25,000 students or more (DHEW, 1976b). Federal and state placement agencies (including the U.S. Employment Service) have limited coverage of, and thus limited effectiveness in, rural areas (Marshall, 1976).

Adequate educational preparation is crucial to a smooth school-to-work transition; unfortunately, researchers agree that the quality of rural education is relatively inferior (Rogers, 1969; Belding, 1974; Marshall, 1976). Vocational schools, in many instances, are still tracking students into traditional rural job paths, mainly agriculture or homemaking. During the period between 1950 and 1966, when farming jobs declined to the lowest point in decades, enrollment in vocational agriculture rose to new heights (DOA, 1969). Moreover, the strong urban bias of the public school system often conflicts with traditional beliefs held by adults in the community. This problem is especially acute for certain rural populations, e.g. Native Americans, Appalachians, and Spanish-Americans (Belding, 1974). Finally, the depleted rural tax base has proved inadequate as the sole support for quality educational services for youth (Marshall, 1976).

The studies reviewed cite further problems unique to rural areas. Geographic isolation (Miles, 1973), inadequate medical and social services support (Marshall, 1976), and a pattern of out-migration to urban areas (Rogers, 1969; Miles, 1973; Belding, 1974; Marshall, 1976) all contribute to the difficulties rural youth experience in negotiating the school-to-work transition.

SECTION 2
INSTITUTIONS: QUALITY AND BEHAVIOR

Educational Preparation for the Transition

One of the critical questions in the debate regarding the school-to-work transition is the adequacy of the educational experience being offered young people - particularly at the secondary school level. In the past twenty years, an imposing number of panels, commissions, and councils have examined the state of American secondary education and found it wanting. Proposals for change have ranged from the radical "deschooling of society" proposed by Ivan Illich to the equally radical suggestion that education (defined as "that which helps people understand the meaning of their lives and become more sensitive to the meaning of other peoples' lives and relate to them more fully") become the responsibility of "social groups that are secure enough to be more concerned with their present life and its meaning than with their future chances" (Friedenberg, 1967). However, despite the broad range of perspectives represented in the secondary school literature, there appears to be a considerable degree of consensus about what the problems are and what must be done to address them. Passow, in Secondary Education Reform: Retrospect and Prospect (1976), reviews the major documents in the school reform debate and concludes that all evince general agreement on a number of major problem areas:

1. the high school does not and cannot provide a complete environment for youth education;
2. the age-segregation of youth must be overcome if they are to be provided a more complete environment for transition to adulthood;
3. an effective education-work policy must be developed;
4. citizenship education should be moved into the larger community while, at the same time, it is developed in school through exercise of students' rights and responsibilities;
5. a variety of educational options and alternatives should be provided both within and outside school with public financial support for students exercising choice among the alternatives;
6. the range and kind of nonformal educational opportunities should be extended;
7. compulsory attendance laws should be changed so as to lower the school-leaving age and individuals should be offered alternatives to the conventional twelve-year schooling pattern;
8. the learning and teaching sources of school and community should be integrated;
9. secondary education should be designed as an integral part in a lifetime continuum of education;
10. the size of the high school should be drastically reduced and its functions made more specialized.

These very broad recommendations are intended to open up, decentralize, and reorganize an institution - the public high school - that is commonly viewed as inadequate to its task of bringing youth into adulthood. The Coleman Report describes the school system as inducting the young person into an environment in which "the student role has become preeminently one of segmental relation to specialists in a setting of bureaucratic procedures" (Coleman, 1973). The report characterizes the schools' structure as

> designed wholly for self-development, particularly the acquisition of cognitive skills and of knowledge. At their best, schools equip students with cognitive and non-cognitive skills relevant to their occupational futures, with knowledge of some portion of civilization's cultural heritage, and with a taste for acquiring more such skills and knowledge. They do not provide extensive opportunity for managing one's affairs, they seldom encourage intense concentration on a single activity, and they are inappropriate settings for nearly all objectives involving responsibilities that affect others (Coleman, 1973).

And for some students, the school has failed even in these limited objectives. The comprehensive high school (which had been thought to be a major institutional resource for fostering democratic values and equal opportunity) has not lived up to this promise. "Reality has gone the other way; educational inequity, always with us in history, has become structurally fixed in the institutions of public schooling" (Coleman, 1973).

Recent studies indicate that the schools are not adequately serving the disadvantaged. For example, it has been reported that 42% of the nation's black 17 year olds are functionally illiterate (NAEP, 1977) and that employers cannot fill hundreds of skilled industrial jobs each year because too often job applicants do not have basic knowledge of English and mathematics (Lusterman, 1977; Udell, 1977).

Other studies state that the schools do not teach marketable skills, self-management skills, and consumer capabilities. Proponents of this view hold that the school systems are too narrowly intellectual and that new curricula less exclusively cognitive and more directly related to life experiences are needed (Tyler, 1968; Armistead, 1969; Brown, 1973; NASSP, 1975). One study concluded that, during the 1960's, schools had done little to improve their students' preparation for labor market realities (Thal-Larsen, 1970). The inadequacy of the curriculum in meeting student needs is reflected in the fact that, in 1970, 45% of the students surveyed reported that about half the time or more, "I feel that I am taking courses that will not help me much in an occupation after I leave school" (Flanagan, 1973).

Moreover, despite the fact that more and more young people are attending school and working simultaneously, there has been relatively little attempt to adapt the school and work environments to facilitate the increasing movement back and forth between the classroom and the workplace. With the exception of a few established programs, such as cooperative education and distributive education, both the schools and employing institutions have been slow to adapt their practices to meet youth's work or service experience needs (Wirtz. 1975).

On the secondary level, two fundamental problems confronting the educational institutions are compulsory attendance laws and the prevailing system of allocating funds to schools based on average daily attendance figures for September through June. Traditional definitions of what constitutes school attendance do not often accommodate programs in which the student's education includes part-days, days, or weeks outside the school (Delaney, 1975). The structure of contemporary education does not encourage teenagers to acquire some of their education in such settings and often inhibits the process by attempting to confine students to the school premises or to the presence of a certified teacher. In addition, class schedules, homework assignments, and other school practices limit a young person's opportunities for any work outside the school's perimeter (Martin, 1976).

Recently, there have been calls on both the secondary and post-secondary levels for increasing the educational options and flexibility available to youth (Newman, 1971; White House Conference on Youth, 1971; Brown, 1973). Proponents of this view recommend implementation by the schools of an open entrance-exit policy, allowing students to move easily between education and employment without penalty. Current graduation requirements and the nine-month school year should be changed, they assert, to allow for more flexible, individualized programs for students and for a wider range of job possibilities throughout the year. This could involve making each school's facilities available at night, on weekends, during the summer, and even during the school day to all youth and adults in the neighborhood for educational, recreational,and other activities. Educational institutions need to become far more imaginative in developing flexible time-and-location arrangements for bringing educational opportunities to young people on a convenient, dispersed basis (Bailey, 1976).

Suggestions for reform and proposals for alternatives are not lacking - as this brief review demonstrates. However, it has been noted (Passow, 1976) that "the details of implementation (of all these proposals) are generally untouched." The

> reports do not deal with the prime residents of schools - students, staff, and parents. There is no attention given to the life and the climate of the school, the intricate networks of social interaction involving individuals and groups which comprise the school's social system. The classrooms are but one part of the school's social system - affected by the hierarchies and the exercise of power; by learning environments, structured and unstructured; and by formal and informal transactions - all of which exercise considerable influence on learning and socialization.

Passow concludes that school reform efforts must begin to take into account "the school as an institution with a life, a climate and ongoing transactions of its own" (Passow, 1976).

Employer Hiring Practices and Union Requirements

No less than the schools, business corporations have been slow to adapt their practices to the needs of young people seeking work experience (Wirtz, 1975). The structuring of most jobs on a full-time basis and the growth of increased employee benefits and job-security practices which tend to favor hiring full-time employees over casual labor constitute significant barriers to youth participation in work environments (Delaney, 1975). Employers point to added administrative and legal burdens as reasons for not hiring youth or placing them in work experience slots. Yet the success of cooperative education programs indicates that accommodations can be made in the workplace, as does the growing interest in part-time employment on the part of employers and workers (Committee on Alternative Work Patterns, 1976). A recent study concluded that the amount of part-time employment is already considerable (45% of workers under 20 work part-time) and that new policies and practices are needed to provide incentives, job security, equitable treatment, and development opportunities for part-timers. The researchers concluded that almost any job could be successfully scheduled on a part-time basis, there being no absolute technological barriers or major economic costs of part-time employment (Nollen, 1977).

Full-time employment of youth may be an even larger problem. Findings from several studies indicate that, by and large, major employers are not interested in hiring applicants under the age of 21 for full-time "adult" jobs (SRI, 1970; Diamond, 1971; The Manpower Institute, 1973; Delaney, 1975). These studies conclude that private employers, particularly large corporations, tend to hire few males under the age of 20 for what are generally considered entry-level jobs with career advancement potential. This situation holds true even in regard to jobs generally considered as requiring no more than a high school education. No distinction is being made between those with and those without a high school diploma (Wirtz, 1975).

One view of the current hiring situation maintains that although employers frequently pay lip service to the need to entrust youth with more responsibility and with greater access to adult roles, they reveal their own unwillingness to do so by their reluctance to hire young people or to redesign jobs to accommodate work experience for them (Silberman, 1975). When faced with a choice, employers will frequently opt for the older worker,since young people often lack their skills and experience (Dayton, 1977). Disadvantaged and minority youth suffer even greater handicaps, since employers have traditionally relied on years of schooling, psychological tests, and reference checks of items such as police records in the selection of new employees. Such screening devices often serve to eliminate potentially capable disadvantaged youth from even the most basic, ground-floor jobs (White House Conference on Youth, 1971).

Union practices and attitudes also have a significant impact on youth employment. In many cases, the apprenticeship age requirements and costs of union membership work to limit the number of youth able to qualify for such membership. In addition, labor unions tend to resist accepting youth as members, particularly when the economy is depressed. The unions are understandably concerned about providing their current members with jobs. Thus, when the economy is performing poorly and more adult workers are competing for jobs, young people find it difficult to obtain jobs in unionized industries (Dayton, 1977).

Although union leaders have been involved in various aspects of work experience, particularly career education, their actions often seem to be governed more by their concern that students may displace adult workers rather than by their interest in offering work experience opportunities for youth (Silberman, 1975; Kemble, 1976). Additionally, part-time employment is seldom available at unionized work sites. This situation results not so much from union policies against part-time employment as from contract provisions which are specifically designed to protect full-time workers. These provisions mitigate against part-time workers and have a substantial impact on youth, 45% of whom work on a part-time basis (Nollen, 1977).

Laws, Regulations, and Restrictions

Much attention has been focused recently on the role that legal and regulatory restrictions play as impediments to youth employment and work experience. Although none of the research questions the original intent of these rules -- to prevent abusive practices in the hiring and employment of young people -- many studies question their appropriateness to contemporary conditions and express concern about their function as barriers to youth in negotiating the transition from school to work.

It is unclear whether the laws themselves act as barriers to employment or whether employer confusion about the laws results in the exclusion of teenagers from work experiences. A 1965 Stanford Research Institute study found that the "many variations and intricacies of child labor laws probably have little effect on the work opportunities of youth except insofar as they serve to confuse labor and school officials and employers" (SRI, 1965). In contrast to this finding, however, several later studies revealed that legal restrictions were cited by both employers and Employment Service placement personnel as the most serious employer objection to hiring youth under the age of 18 (DOL, 1970). Data gathered for a 1975 study of the effect of child labor laws on youth employment acknowledge that the laws act as a potential restraint "mainly because some respondents said that such restraint was operative and because the firms surveyed hired so few persons under 18" (Delaney, 1975). In sum, however, there are no good measures of the impact of these laws on the actual employment and unemployment of teenagers (CBO, 1976b).

Despite the lack of hard evidence relating teenage employment difficulties to the child labor laws, several studies have called for review of the laws in order to strengthen those that provide needed protection and liberalize those that serve as deterrents to employment opportunity (Cohen, 1971; Coleman, 1973). According to Delaney, such a review would be in keeping with the original intent of the Fair Labor Standards Act, which went far in trying to accommodate work situations of value to young workers (Delaney, 1975).

Studies reviewed agree unanimously that the overlapping coverage of federal and state laws and regulations with minimum age requirements, together with the numerous special exceptions and conditions, have resulted in substantial confusion as to what a particular youth can or cannot do and encourage caution on the part of employers in hiring decisions (NCMP, 1976c). Wider dissemination of information and simplified guidelines with respect to federal, state,and local child labor laws and regulations are recommended in an effort to eliminate this confusion and its possible adverse effect on the hiring of teenagers

(DOL, 1972; Delaney, 1975; Martin, 1976).

Other restrictions cited as barriers include occupational entry requirements, such as formalized apprenticeship and occupational licensing (CBO, 1976b). The impact of licensing requirements on the employment of youth is found in the minimum age requirements of many licensing laws. Although the qualification requirements for specific occupations may include education and/or training which cannot realistically be completed before the minimum age, in some occupations the age restriction acts as a separate limitation on youth participation (Delaney, 1975). Further, there is little consistency in the minimum age requirements for various occupational licenses within and across jurisdictions (ETS, 1972). Insistence on credentials as a device to effectively practice age discrimination in hiring is cited as an additional impediment to youth employment (Silberman, 1975). Data on the use of credentials to provide job shelters by limiting the number of acceptable job applicants (Freedman, 1974) as well as data on the lack of congruence between required credentials and actual job requirements (Berg, 1971) raise the concern that such credentials do not serve as a genuine indicator of proficiency in many of the jobs for which they are required. Both the Panel on the Education of Adolescents and the Newman Task Force on Higher Education criticized the "credentials monopoly" of high schools, colleges, and universities and called for new paths to certification that would permit less emphasis on grades, more independent work, credit for off-campus experience, and greater use of equivalency examinations to prevent irrelevant job qualification restrictions on students and dropouts (Newman, 1971; Martin, 1976).

As discussed in Section 4 of this report, the effect of the minimum wage on teenage unemployment remains a controversial issue. Despite much effort, there has been (and likely will be) no consensus on the quantitative effect of minimum wage legislation, as evidenced by the recent debate on Capitol Hill in regard to the proposed hike in the minimum wage. Representatives of organized labor, who argued for the proposed increase and against a special subminimum wage for teenagers, claimed with justifiable concern that a subminimum rate would encourage employers to substitute youth for adults. Representatives of industry, on the other hand, argued that an increase in the minimum wage would result in lessened employment opportunities for youth, with employers demanding more skilled workers at the higher pay scale ("Higher Minimum Wage," 1977). Classical economists would generally agree that "public regulation of the labor market, by means such as minimum wage laws, adds to teenagers' problems in finding and in acquiring job experience" (CBO, 1976b).

Job Placement Services

The transition from school to work is generally agreed to be one of the most difficult passages that youth today must attempt to negotiate. Yet, according to our research, it is also one of the loneliest passages; neither schools, employers, Employment Service, nor any other institutions effectively aid in this transition (Martin, 1976;

Reubens, 1977). Youth who do find work almost invariably do so without institutional assistance. Existing institutions, with their conflicting responsibilities and allegiances, do not view themselves as young people's agents vis-a-vis the adult world (Wirtz, 1975). There is little evidence that schools help young people in negotiating this transition; students lack information on occupations, employment prospects, and job requirements (Gardner, 1968). They know very little about their own abilities, have few jobseeking skills, and receive little assistance from any institution (Stern, 1977). In a 1972 survey, 77% of high school seniors felt that the schools should help leavers find jobs, while only 29% felt that their own school's placement services were good or excellent (DHEW, 1976c).

The evidence seems to indicate that youth rely on friends, family, other significant adults, and the "grapevine" to find work (White House Conference on Youth, 1971; Martin, 1976). This system is particularly ineffective, however, in the central city, where there is little information to be had (Bullock, 1972; Friedlander, 1972). This is significant in light of the fact that research indicates that the lack of occupational and labor market information lessens the chances for success in achieving specific employment goals for youth (Parnes and Kohen, 1973). Access to accurate and complete labor market information is important for both the individual worker and for the smooth functioning of the labor market (Mangum, 1971; Walther, 1976).

Lack of access to such information is directly related to the lack of job development and placement services available to youth. Until recently, schools were not expected to be responsible for job placement. Today, although there are no data available on the scope of placement services in the public secondary schools (AIR, 1973), it has been documented that the number of school-sponsored job placement programs for students has been increasing rapidly, particularly within the last five years (DHEW, 1976b). This may be in response to recent legislation as well as to the demands of youth themselves and to the calls of recent commissions and panels to expand such services to youth (Princeton, 1968; White House Conference on Youth, 1971; Brown, 1973; Coleman, 1973; Martin, 1976).

The failure of the Employment Service to reach substantial numbers of in-school youth may also have contributed to the increase of school-sponsored placement services. Historically, the Employment Service has only rarely emphasized student job placement (Wirtz, 1975). The cooperative school program of the Employment Service - under which ES counselors came to the schools to test, counsel, and take job applications -- was offered in 1963 in 50% of the public secondary schools with two-thirds of the total number of graduates. At best, however, the program was a one-shot deal, which declined from the mid-60's on. Recent figures indicate that only one out of six teenagers (16-19) looking for a job contacts the Employment Service - one out of four among those out of school (DOL, 1975). Data regarding the number of jobs obtained through the assistance of the Employment Service refer only to youth under the age of 22, making it impossible to gauge the Service's effectiveness in serving youth of different ages. In short, there is presently no single institution charged with the primary responsibility for youth job placement and youth development.

This situation likely reflects the lack of coordination of youth-serving activities by local institutions, particularly between the traditionally separate education and employment establishments (Wirtz, 1975). Educators fear the intrusion of business into the educational arena (Kemble, 1976), often discouraging the more active involvement of employers in work experience and job placement efforts (Delaney, 1975). Employers, on the other hand, express disappointment in the graduates of the education institutions, often preferring to conduct hiring and training programs independent of the schools (Lusterman, 1977). Recently, however, as more attention is paid to the problem of increasing teenage unemployment, there has been a growing number of attempts at cooperative community-based efforts to ease the school-to-work transition, stimulated both by legislative mandate (witness the Youth Employment and Demonstration Projects Act of 1977) and by local initiative (such as the community councils in the Work-Education Consortium).

Guidance and Counseling

Much of the recent literature on guidance and counseling is concerned with defining the profession's goals and objectives, discussing current and future roles which could most usefully be performed by counselors, and evaluating, through various surveys, the effectiveness of past and current guidance and counseling strategies. The review of this literature indicates that the guidance needs of youth may be better served within a broader and more cooperative institutional framework.

One of the frequent charges cited is that the ratio of counselors to students is too low. A recent study of 30 large cities revealed that ratios ranged from 1 counselor to 148 students in San Diego to 1 to 1200 in New York City, with most cities falling between 1 to 300 and 1 to 500 (AED, 1972). Moreover, the presence of a counselor in the school does not mean that all of his/her time is devoted to counseling students. According to a 1968 survey of counselors, the "median" time spent counseling was only 40%, yielding one person year of counseling for every 1,000 students (Campbell, 1968). Results from another study indicated that the typical counselor was involved 10% of the time in record-keeping, 50% in conducting interviews, 8% in administering tests, 2% in handling disciplinary problems, 19% in communicating with teachers, and 11% in other general activities (Kaufman, 1967). A more recent study revealed that only 16% of a high school counselor's time was actually spent on vocational guidance and job placement and referral (Hilton, 1973). Ginzberg's three-year study of guidance found that a "suburban high school student, who generally has the greatest access to guidance services, sees a counselor on the average of two to four times a year for less than 20 minutes at each session in his six years of junior and senior high school" (Ginzberg, 1972). The study went on to state that most guidance counseling focuses primarily on helping students make "life adjustments" and achieve emotional maturity. This tends to ignore the need of many students for substantive advice on jobs, skill training, community college programs, and additional information with strong vocational input regarding the school-to-work transition (Campbell, 1968; Ginzberg, 1972; Hoyt et al., 1972). A related criticism is that counselors are more interested and competent in guiding youth towards college attendance than towards vocational training (Rhodes, 1970; Ginzberg, 1971; NACVE, 1972).

Concern is also expressed in the literature regarding the emphasis on one-to-one counseling -- "it is very seldom that large numbers of students have real and significant personal contact with the counselors" (Mahler, 1969). Proponents of this view stress the need for greater use of group counseling and better occupational information (Hoppock, 1970; NACVE, 1972). Support for this view is found in a nationwide study of student career development conducted in 1973. Researchers found that student-expressed need for help with career planning was in sharp contrast to the amount of help students felt they had received; the study concluded that "the traditional one-to-one counseling model for 'helping Johnny chose his life's work' is no longer viable" (Prediger, 1973). Additional studies determined that students rarely seek or obtain occupational information from counselors and consult with them infrequently on career or job decisions (Grasso, 1975); only 19% of 18,000 high school seniors said that a teacher or counselor had had a great deal of influence on post-high school plans (DHEW, 1976c). Another study, utilizing Project Talent data, indicated that vocational guidance, or the lack of it, had a negative impact on a large percentage of the youth sampled. Some lacked needed career information; others, who had access to vocational counseling, indicated that they did not receive appropriate encouragement and guidance. In addition, a large number did not understand the educational requirements of various jobs (Russ-Eft, 1976).

The issues cited above are supplemented by concerns regarding: the credentialing practices of the counseling profession which often preclude the use of individuals with other than school experience (Wirtz, 1975); the quality of counselor preparation (Brim, 1969; Rhodes, 1970; Ginzberg, 1971); the burden of administrative duties placed on counselors (Campbell, 1968; Mahler, 1969; Borow, 1970); and the use of technology in counseling (Loughary, 1971). The solution to strengthening the "weakest link in any of the present bridges between the worlds of education and work" cannot be achieved by professional guidance personnel working in isolation from the rest of the community (Wirtz, 1975). Suggestions for improvement include more training of faculty by counselors (Silberman, 1976); expanding vocational and educational counseling programs both in schools and in institutions outside the schools (White House Conference on Youth, 1971); and greater use of paraprofessionals and volunteers knowledgeable about the world of work (Steenland, 1973; Lewis, 1977).

A detailed review of literature since 1968 on practical career guidance, counseling and placement for the non-college bound student was conducted by AIR in 1973; the researchers reached the conclusion that:

> In general, it appears that women, minority students, and students from poor families need different personal and occupational information and help than they have been receiving. Furthermore, the education-community relationship needs renewed attention and improvement. Media used in guidance and counseling generally need study to determine their cost-effectiveness. Counselors need to become more aware of the world of work and its demands on individuals, and paraprofessionals need incorporation into the guidance and counseling framework (AIR, 1973).

SECTION 3
CHANGES IN SOCIETY

Technological Change, Energy, and Environment

There has been considerable debate, particularly from the mid-1950's to the early 70's, on the impact of automation and technological change and, more recently, on the effect of new policies regarding energy and environment on employment and unemployment. Not unexpectedly, there are several schools of thought regarding these issues and their impact, short-term and long-term, on the economy.

Technological change, according to Haber et al., includes six areas which affect the number of jobs and influence the skills required by the industrial system: (1) scientific management (time and motion studies), (2) mergers and consolidations, (3) changes in plant locations, (4) shifts in product demand, (5) changes in machinery and technology, and (6) automation. Haber claims that mechanization accounted for the extensive decline in U.S. agricultural labor and also led to a decline in employment opportunities for blue-collar workers. While recognizing the negative short-term impact on displaced workers, Haber goes on to point out that "population growth, a higher standard of living, insatiable wants, basic needs, and research and development will all create jobs for the long-term absorption of these displaced workers." He concludes: "one would have to be blind to the lessons of recent economic history to be pessimistic about the long run job outlook" (Haber et al., 1963).

The Report of the National Commission on Technology, Automation, and Economic Progress agrees that technological change has been a major factor in the displacement and temporary unemployment of particular workers but states that "technological change does not bear major responsibility for the general level of unemployment" (Technology and the American Economy, 1966). Fabricant maintains that it is a misconception to assume that increases in productivity or the introduction of automation are creating a vastly difficult problem. Although a problem does exist, he argues that those industries in which productivity has risen most rapidly are the industries in which employment has risen most rapidly and, conversely, that those industries in which increases in productivity have lagged most are usually those in which increases in employment have lagged most or in which employment has actually fallen. In addition, he states that rapid increases in productivity can mean more jobs via reduced costs, lowered prices, and increased demands (Fabricant, 1964). Brozen asserts that technological change has created more jobs than it has destroyed (Brozen, 1968). The results of a nationwide survey conducted in 1967 indicate "that the impact of advances in machine technology on employment is largely indirect" and is limited, percentagewise. The survey findings support the contention that "aggregate demand is the key to the economy's ability to absorb technological unemployment " (Mueller et al., 1969).

Others maintain, however, that the impact of technological change has been profound and that a steady increase in job dislocation can be predicted, with a substantial part of the national employment succumbing to technological advance and with many jobs facing the high likelihood of technological elimination (Venn, 1970). Supporters of this view debunk as myth the notion that for every job destroyed by automation, two new ones are created (Kassalow, 1962; Seligman, 1968). They assert that unemployment is, in part, caused by the introduction of technological means for economizing the use of labor at a pace which outruns the discovery of new uses for that labor. Estimates of the number of workers displaced each year by automation run at about one and a half million people, who "become difficult to absorb in a labor market already burdened with unemployment and an increasing number of job-seeking youth" (Venn, 1970).

Concerns are also expressed regarding the relation of increasing automation to skill and educational requirements; it is feared that more education and higher skills will be required of workers (Levine, 1965). Several studies addressed this issue and found that: (1) although the demand for increase in skills may be very real and significant, it stems only in minor part from the use of automatic machines (Bright, 1966); (2) in a study of five industries, the overall or net change in the skill requirements of occupations in these industries was remarkably small, despite the 15 years covered (Horowitz and Hernstadt, 1966); (3) empirical case studies of automation did not reveal any general tendency toward either the upgrading or the downgrading of job skill requirements (Simon, 1965); (4) in a study of the impact of technological change on manpower and skill demand, it was determined that "on the average, technological change tends to decrease the skill demand of the process-related work force in manufacturing and service industry" at the same time that "the newer technology required a better educated labor force than the old...though differences were small, and the general nature of the process had more effect than the technological change itself" (Crossman and Laner, 1969).

In an attempt to resolve the debate, one analysis determined that: productivity increases tended neither to depress nor to stimulate employment; the skill composition of workers in specific industries were not affected by changes in productivity; the level of education of workers bore no relation to changes in productivity per worker; and, most importantly for youth, there was no direct relation between technological change and employment opportunities for young and old workers (Jaffe and Froomkin, 1968).

More recently, the debate has centered on the impact of the energy problem and pollution control on employment. According to a recent study, a reduction in the energy growth rate to 2% per year would not adversely affect the economy. Slower energy growth, accompanied by more efficient use of energy, would expand the total number of jobs and improve environmental quality as well (Ford Foundation, 1974). Another study indicated that energy production could grow at the low annual rate of 1.5% through the year 2010 without adversely affecting the economy (Grossman and Daneker, 1977). An analysis conducted for the Federal Energy Administration examined the prospects of providing

34,000 private homes with energy efficiency improvements and concluded that over 7 years, 487,000 jobs would be created, most of which would be local, low to moderately-skilled, and concentrated in or near urban areas (FEA, 1976). The Senate Commerce Committee Staff recently estimated that $1.6 billion in interest subsidies and loan guarantees for conservation projects would generate 400,000 jobs (Critical Mass, 1976). Another study maintained that "reducing oil imports by 2 million barrels a day would generate 500,000 to 800,000 new jobs in the U.S." (Americans for Energy Independence, 1976). Thus, studies seem to indicate that even if the energy industry sought to emphasize conservation rather than expansion, a broad range of economic benefits would be generated and a large number of jobs would be created.

In addition, according to a summary of recent studies on pollution control, the impact of pollution control costs generally does not threaten the long-run economic viability of any of the industries examined (U.S. Council on Environment Quality, 1972). Other findings indicate that many plants which close as a result of environmental laws would have closed anyway within a period of several years, and a disproportionate share of closures occur in areas of chronically high unemployment (Institute of Public Administration, 1972).

Job Requirements and Educational Achievement

There have been many debates about the extent of underemployment, resulting in a body of literature on the concept of underemployment as well as on the problems of its measurement. There is increasing evidence, however, that more people are acquiring higher levels of formal training and education than numbers of jobs are being generated to accommodate them. To the extent that this is true, it may mean: a disjuncture in the transition from school to work; long searches for jobs not there; lowered sights in terms of occupational status and expected pay; and increased dissatisfactions at the work place.

A few studies make the case in rather clearcut fashion. To our knowledge, the work of Folger and Nam (1964) was the first systematic study to find that a disjuncture was occurring. Over the last 25 years, the occupational distributions for men show little change (Barton, 1975), although we know that education has advanced considerably. Between 1950 and 1970, the increase in jobs at the highest skill level moved from only 7 to 9 percent (Scoville, 1969). When the Dictionary of Occupational Titles is used to identify the real educational requirements of jobs, the results show that the average amount of schooling required by 1970's jobs was only 10.5 years, compared with 10.0 years three decades earlier (Erkaus, 1964; Scoville, 1969). Perhaps the best summation of the situation is found in Adkins' study which concluded "that if we take the 1940 level of educational attainment in individual occupations and (roughly) calculate the proportion of the total number of male college graduates in 1969 that would be needed to meet 1940 educational attainment standards for occupations, we will account for only 45% of the stock of male college graduates in 1969," which means that 55% of the increased employment of college graduates was due to raising the education requirements of the same occupation (Adkins, 1974). It is, of course, widely known that sex stereotyping and discrimination have required a large proportion of women to take jobs below their educational achievements and abilities. BLS and the National Planning Association indicate a continued gap between abilities and opportunities (Wool, 1973).

Recently, the debate has been considerable as to whether the cure is less education (Freeman, 1976) or improving the quality of work to make better use of developed abilities (O'Toole, 1977).

Shaping Attitudes

AGE SEGREGATION: There is increasing evidence that contemporary youth are more isolated from (i.e. have fewer contacts with) adults than their predecessors. Perhaps the most exhaustive discussion of the phenomenon of age segregation was that of Coleman et al. in 1973. A cursory examination of trends in public education over the last 25 years reveals an increased emphasis on compulsory public schooling and a concomitant rise in the median number of years of educational attainment (Wirtz, 1975; Osterman, 1976). This development, according to Martin, has resulted in a marked decline in the number of significant contacts between youth and adults. The study notes that the introduction of the school as the socializing agent for many aspects of adolescent development has resulted in "a decoupling of the generations" and has in effect facilitated the evolution of a youth peer culture (Martin, 1976).

Another study which uses attitude changes and increased incidences of drug usage, suicide,and overt anti-social conduct as quantitative measures of alienation finds that "for perhaps twenty-five years, America has witnessed a steady growth of alienation among adolescents and youth," and that there is some correlation between youth's feelings of estrangement and the evolution of what is known as "modern formal education." The study concludes that modern educational systems contribute to social disintegration, for they segregate youth from adults and from other youth of differing ages, ability levels,and socioeconomic backgrounds (Wynne, 1976).

As the Martin study notes:

> The treatment of adolescents in schools is similar to that which they receive in the rest of society; in fact, schools are the primary institutions for the age grouping of youth. For most of each working day, adolescents are physically isolated from the rest of the community in structures where at least half--those under 17--must remain by law. Within the schools themselves one finds the most comprehensive age grouping ever developed in society. Although there are teachers and administrators who represent different age groups, they are engaged in activities fundamentally different from those of students (Martin, 1976).

There has been much debate as to whether the best approach to this problem is an increase in the quantity of youth-adult contacts (Coleman, 1973; Bronfenbrenner, 1974) or an improvement in the quality of contacts (Timpane et al., 1976).

SEX STEREOTYPING: The effects of sex stereotyping on the work orientations of youth have been the subject of increasing research and discussion in recent years. There is growing evidence that sex stereotyping is a factor of considerable importance in shaping youth's attitudes toward work and the work world.

According to the national longitudinal study of the high school class of 1972, women in general reported a lower orientation toward work than their male counterparts (DHEW, 1975a). The study goes on to note that women enrolled in postsecondary educational institutions tended to gravitate toward the academic fields of education, social science, and humanities and fine arts, while men appeared to be more oriented toward the fields of business, social science, and natural science (DHEW, 1975b).

Another study on the work orientations of college students clearly shows that women differ from men in their occupational expectations and in their emphasis upon certain salient characteristics of work and the work environment (Gottlieb, et al., 1974). The literature on adolescent development also suggests that sex stereotyping has considerable influence on occupational expectations and work orientations of youth. A recent Institute for Social Research publication reports that females tend to underplan their future occupational and educational goals in terms of their academic ability compared to males. For example, girls who anticipate working in the lowest status occupations earn a higher grade average than do boys who anticipate working in medium status occupations ("Teenaged Boys and Girls", 1977). Another report concludes that "the early socialization of young people into occupational roles is unduly limited by sex, ethnicity and social class, and schools contribute to this problem." It further notes that girls more often than boys attribute academic failure to a pervasive feeling of innate inferiority rather than to a lack of work and discipline (Stern, 1977). Although time limitations have precluded the synthesis of the majority of information on sex stereotyping and its relation to the work attitudes of youth, the evidence seems to be conclusive that sex stereotyping greatly influences the attitudes of youth toward the world of work.

DECLINE OF CONFIDENCE: Public confidence in our major institutions is a crucial factor that must be addressed in the formulation of policy and in the development of programs designed to ease the transition from school to work; without trust in those major institutions serving the public's need, an education-work policy will lack both impetus and efficacy. The Vietnam War and the Watergate scandal contributed to declining public confidence in major societal institutions, and there is increasing evidence that both youth and adults have grown more skeptical of these institutions.

A 1974 survey study of the political views of non-college vs. college youth reveals that college youth are markedly more critical of major American institutions than their non-college counterparts. The study goes on to show that both college and non-college youth are more skeptical of big business and the country's two major political parties than comparable members of the youth cohort in 1969 (Yankelovich, 1974). Another longitudinal survey of students at Cornell University conducted over a period of 14 years shows "a declining interest in business as a career preference" (Maher, 1971).

A longitudinal study of 10th grade males revealed that, like their elders, "these young men shared an increasing impatience with government" (Bachman, 1971). As for minority youth, it is widely recognized that they are even more cynical and skeptical of government and the other major American institutions than their white counterparts (Yankelovich, 1974). When it comes to political party affiliations, youth (both college and non-college) seem to lean more toward the Democratic Party.

What is true of youth, moreover, seems to be mirrored in the views of many adults, although the disaffection of adults is not quite as acute. According to two studies of attitudes toward public education, the most pressing problem facing public educational institutions, from the adult point of view, is lack of discipline (Elam, 1973). Another study of the public's attitudes toward government concludes that, in the past few years, there has been a sharp decline in "voter confidence and trust in almost all national institutions." Public attitude surveys also show that 6 out of 10 Americans believe that "something is morally wrong in the country" (Yankelovich, 1976). According to a study of Americans' perceptions of life quality, adults have mixed feelings about the standards and values of today's society, particularly as evidenced by protests, lifestyles,and generational conflicts (Andrews, 1976). The general mood of adults toward the country is reflected in the following statement:

> We have lost our shared moral vision of what America stands for beyond "chasing the buck" and the pursuit of individual satisfaction. We no longer have proper regard for the needs of the community, the country, the rest of the world and future generations (Yankelovich, 1976).

DIFFERING GENERATIONAL ATTITUDES TOWARD FULFILLMENT AND GRATIFICATION: The decade of the 60's was a period of enormous social and political turmoil, catalyzed in large part by the country's youth and characterized by their questioning of traditional values and norms. These events have led many to believe that contemporary youth have renounced the basic tenets of the work ethic. However, a survey of the relevant literature indicates that work is still central to the lives of our youth and that there appears to be emerging a "new" work ethic characterized by greater demands that work provide personal satisfaction and social benefit.

The studies conducted by Yankelovich between 1969-1973 are among the best known research on youth and their attitudes toward work. His studies, which contrast the work attitudes of four basic subgroups (college, non-college, women and minority youth), reveal that all of the subgroups place considerable importance upon work (Yankelovich, 1974). The findings of the national longitudinal survey of the class of 1972 indicate that the work orientations of this sample of high school students were still strong despite a net decrease relative to other psychological variables. Minorities (as defined, blacks and hispanics) were even more work oriented than whites, and white males were more oriented toward work than their female counterparts (DHEW, 1975a). Another study which contrasted the work orientations of the sons of welfare and non-welfare families clearly demonstrated that both groups of sons had very strong orientations toward work, that "welfare and non-welfare sons are more similar than dissimilar in their orientations" (Goodwin, 1972). A recent study conducted by the University of Minnesota's Center for Youth Development and Research found that the majority of high school students in the state "echo adult ideas about employment and jobs." Of particular interest is the fact that those young people polled "appeared relatively unaware of social factors influencing occupational success--such as social class, parents' education and occupation, and the nature of the occupational structure" ("Young People Hold Traditional Views," 1977). Gottlieb summarizes his conclusions regarding the work orientations of college youth as follows:

> There appears to be an emerging work ethic which places a much greater demand upon work. The expectation is that work can and should be of greater significance to the individual and of greater value to the society. The higher and different expectations for the content and form of work probably signal a change in the expected fit between work and other life activities...Again, work is not considered to be a means to an end, but rather as a potential source for embracing self-sufficiency and family relationships (Gottlieb et al., 1974).

To say that work remains a central value in the lives of youth is not to say that what youth expect from work has remained the same.

Indeed, there is some evidence that youth's expectations of work are in a relative state of flux. A work ethic may be emerging among youth which places less emphasis upon the extrinsic benefits traditionally associated with work (such as money, security, etc.) and places more emphasis upon the intrinsic values of work. No one is suggesting that the sole motivation for contemporary youth to work is altruism, for in many respects they reflect the views and economic aspirations of their parents. It is true, however, that our society affords our youth much more time to engage in creative, personally satisfying endeavors, and a great number of them desire to bring all of their talents to the workplace. In sum, youth appear to be seeking fundamental changes in work and the workplace--changes which will allow them to bring their vitality and creativity into the work world. The feasibility of this for many groups of youth is questionable and could possibly have some serious ramifications. Yet, the fact remains that youth desire more from their work and the workplace than the incentives of money and status.

The "intrinsic benefits of work" are cited by several authors as being extremely high on the list of work expectation priorities among many college youth (Maher, 1971; Gottlieb, 1973; Yankelovich, 1974). College women in particular seem to place considerably more emphasis upon career and self-realization than their non-college counterparts (Yankelovich, 1974). As one study clearly points out, however, the work expectations of college youth are more in keeping with their occupational opportunities; the "fit" between expectations and opportunities for college youth appears to be a much better one. On the other hand, those non-college youth who have expectations similar to their college counterparts (amounting to roughly 42% of the non-college majority) may find it extremely difficult to bring their creative energies to occupations with little or no room for such talents (Yankelovich, 1974).

PEER PRESSURE: The effects of the peer group on the value orientations of youth have been the subject of many studies in recent years. Although the studies differ in methodological approaches and, particularly, in the age sub-groups being examined, the evidence seems to support the hypothesis that there is a correlation between peer group influence and the work orientation of youth.

Peer influence is cited by many authors as being an important factor in the shaping of values among younger adolescents, although the literature does not clarify what these values are (Conger, 1971; Coleman, 1973; Martin, 1976; Timpane et al., 1976). In general, the peer group appears to play considerably more of a role in the socialization of adolescents who are the products of extreme or negligent parenting styles (Conger, 1971; Lipsitz, 1977). Although most studies concede that the shift away from the family to the peer group is, in fact, a natural occurrence in the adolescent drive for autonomy (Conger, 1971; Lipsitz, 1977), there is very little evidence that peer influence is in any way monolithic in value formation during late adolescence and, moreover, no evidence to support the belief that the influence is deleterious. A study of the employment-related problems of black female teenagers in New York City revealed that peer group influence operated in a "strong and positive" way, counteracting some of the negative influences of the home and the community (Wallace, 1974). Another study of the adolescent experience demonstrated that "adolescents who have fewer ties to peers evidence less autonomy." The study goes on to note that "male adolescents who associate more intensively with peers and reject their parents more, but identify more with adults, are better prepared for the adult world. They seem to use the peer group to dissociate from parents, but not from adulthood" (Timpane et al., 1976).

In many cases, moreover, there is considerable overlap between parental and peer values (Conger, 1971; Lipsitz, 1977), and quite often this overlap may serve to reinforce adult values (Conger, 1971). According to several other studies, peer influence is much more likely to affect youth in matters of taste, fashion, and language, than in the areas of moral and social values and in understanding of the adult world (Conger, 1971; Timpane et al., 1976). Other research reveals that youth usually differentiate between parents and peers in terms of specific needs fulfillment (Lipsitz, 1977).

What seems to emerge from this brief discussion of the peer group and its effect(s) on the value orientations of youth is that very little is actually known about its complex workings. In some cases it may reinforce parental values, while in others, it may act as the source of completely new values.

SECTION 4
UPDATE: YOUTH LABOR MARKET THEORY AND RESEARCH

Policy research and applied research generally must start out by looking for what seems to be wrong and needs fixing. Policy research and policy making also must be informed by more basic research -- research conducted largely by academics in development of the most general theories possible, the development of hypotheses from those theories, and the collection of empirical evidence to test those hypotheses. There is, however, considerable disagreement about how best to proceed with research in order to have the most social benefit. It is argued by some that basic research is the only sound approach, and it is argued by others that federal agencies charged primarily with policy responsibilities should not be supporting basic research at all.

This dilemma was thoroughly debated in the Brookings Dedication Lectures for 1961: "Research for Public Policy". The view underlying this report is that of Pendleton Herring who pointed out in these lectures that research is stimulated by both the urgent need to solve practical problems and the curiosity that leads the researcher to take the steps that theory and method indicate are most probably significant (Herring, 1961). But the view of Morton Grodzins would not be uncommon: that the problem is to recruit people with high intellectual ability, train them well, and then "let (them) be. Let them choose their own routes to significance" (Grodzins, 1961).

In any event, a very large share of systematic knowledge does result from the work of those researchers who have chosen their own routes to significance. Unfortunately, their work is too seldom brought together in a synthesis - perhaps because this is not an easy task and not well-rewarded. Researchers most often receive recognition for adding to knowledge, not synthesizing it.

An example of the kind of synthesis that is necessary for both policy and research planning is Herbert Parnes' book, Research on Labor Mobility: An Appraisal of Research Findings in the United States, published in 1954, under the auspices of the Social Science Research Council. Edward Kalachek's The Youth Labor Market, published in 1969, represents a similar attempt at synthesis and is relevant to the topic of this report. However, since 1969, more research has been conducted on the youth labor market than was conducted in the prior two decades. Yet that research has not been brought together.

A complete synthesis of recent labor market theory and research is beyond the scope of this project. However, we considered the task too important to ignore completely and have attempted here an incomplete and selective synthesis.

Youth Labor Market Theories

Youth seek their jobs and employers seek youthful employees in a market that includes both youth and adults. The degree to which youth and adults are in continuous markets or in segmented markets becomes a key matter, almost basic to any generalizable explanations of youth employment behaviors. But the degree to which youth and adults are coterminous or separate is still a matter of considerable contention. In the following pages, we will briefly outline the major youth labor market theories. Particular reference will be made to the work of Peter Doeringer who has described competing theories in contrast with his own.

The Keynesian influence on labor market theory is most strongly seen in the "Queue" theory, which links youth unemployment primarily to inadequate total demand in the economy. According to the Queue theory, employers look upon workers as a heterogeneous mass, with each worker having a rank based upon both objective factors (how well they perform a task) and subjective factors (how well employers, fellow workers, and customers like dealing with them) (Stevenson, 1973). Workers are chosen by employers according to their relative rank, or at least where they are perceived to rank, along a scale of these factors.

In this view, youth are located at the end of the hiring queue, and thus they are last hired, first fired. Unemployment in the Keynesian system is defined as demand deficient unemployment, for in a system of a continuous rank order, with youth being of lower rank, the only way they will be reached is to expand the total number of jobs. The jobs are to be created through government policy which stimulates expansion. If expansion is insufficient and fails to keep pace with an increasingly productive labor force, unemployment rises -- and fewer of the people at the tail end of the queue are employed (Doeringer, 1975).

Labor market theories based on the "human capital" approach view unemployment as linked to the determinants of earnings. Unemployment, like income, is affected by differences in ability, levels of training, education, and work experience. Education and work experience are investment decisions of time and money. In the human capital model, youth are unemployed because their abilities, skills, and productive capacities are insufficient to make it worthwhile for employers to hire them at the prevailing market wage (Doeringer, 1975). This theory is implicit in much of the debate on the minimum wage and its effect on youth unemployment (to be discussed in the following sections). While the Queue theory recognizes differences in ability, its emphasis would be more on enlarging demand than on changing abilities.

The "job search" theory grows out of Charles Holt's and the Urban Institute's concern with the tradeoff between unemployment and the rates of change in wages. People who begin looking for employment lack information about the labor market and have higher pay expectations at the outset of their search than they do during the course of their search. The "job search" theory postulates that the wage adjustment process continues over the duration of the search for work until the marginal benefit in expected improved wages and working conditions equals the marginal cost of further search; the searcher then accepts the best job offer encountered (Fischer, 1973a). This theory seeks to explain the duration of job search and the effect of the search on youth's reservation wage. Barron finds that the average duration of unemployment is inversely related to the number of vacancies, but directly related to the probability of accepting a wage offer (Barron, 1975). Gronau and McCall each show that unemployed job hunters reduce their minimum asking wage over the unemployment duration, but find different reasons for doing so; Gronau thinks that the reduction is linked to anticipated reduction in future job duration and income as the search continues, while McCall attributes the decline in the minimum asking wage to new information acquired through the job search process. On the other hand, Mortensen finds no change in the minimum asking wage over the unemployment duration (Barnes, 1975).

Another theory which describes the youth experience is the "dual labor market" theory. This theory assumes two independent labor markets. The primary labor market is the internal labor market for adult white males. They are able to obtain jobs at a few points of entry. Once hired, these workers are sheltered from competitive pressures and gain secure employment with steady promotions. Because of discrimination and other structural barriers, most non-whites, women, and teenagers are relegated to the secondary labor market where jobs are frequently dull, unsatisfying, low paying, and have little job security, poor working conditions, little chance for promotion, and capricious supervision. There are frequent spells of unemployment, and high unemployment rates are explained by high turnover rates. Undesirable jobs are always available, so unemployment is voluntary (Fischer, 1973a).

Osterman, a proponent of the dual labor market theory, criticizes the human capital approach: "the human capital model holds up very well for upper tier workers, but has little explanatory power for workers in the secondary labor market" (Osterman, 1975b). In the secondary labor market, earnings depend only on the amount of time worked. Experience does not contribute significantly to earnings, nor does education. "The problem of youth unemployment is rooted less in individual behavior than in the character of institutions and the social patterns that derive from them," states Peter Doeringer, in defense of the dual labor market view (Doeringer, 1975).

On the basis of considerable empirical study, Freedman has developed the concept of "work establishment." She has tracked this process and concludes that establishment is not complete until "the ages of 25 and 35, and the differentials that exist among workers in that age group are likely to last a lifetime" (Freedman, 1969). Using 1970 census data, Freedman, in another study, found that "the typically brief job tenure of young workers reflects the interaction between the sectors where they are concentrated and their own job-shopping tendencies" (Freedman, 1976).

These are the theories in contention. The extent to which any one of them achieves validation, or the extent to which it is determined what mixture among them accounts for observed labor market outcomes, will greatly affect the choices public policy has to make.

Determinants of Youth Participation in the Labor Force

The identification of the factors which influence the supply of youth labor is essential to the understanding of the dynamics of the youth labor market. Economists generally view decisions to supply labor as a matter of the optimal allocation of time to maximize an individual's lifetime preferences between work (or looking for work) and leisure. Youth's particular reasons for working are based on their own set of motivational forces, the strength of which can vary significantly among youth and have differential effects on their decisions to work. If the youth is a secondary income earner, his/her income may be needed for financial support. The amount of youth labor supplied, in this case, is a "function of the youth's wage, the wages of other family members, and family income as well as prevailing employment conditions and the employment status of other family members" (Lerman, 1970). The several factors affecting supply, which have been dealt with in recent research, are discussed below.

FAMILY INCOME: One study of 18 and 19 year old males has explored the relationship between family income and the level of their employment, as well as favorableness of the occupational distribution of those employed. While it was predicted that the higher the family income, the less would be the need for teenagers to work, the results were that family income had no impact. It was found, however, that the higher the family income, the better the teenager did in terms of the occupation attained, and that "higher family incomes...were associated very strongly with improved occupation positions for Black youth" (Stevenson, 1973).

FAMILY BACKGROUND AND LIVING STANDARD: Family background and living standard are supply determinants. Herbert Parnes' Career Thresholds Study, based on a survey of 5000 youth, finds that older, better educated individuals from more prosperous families know more about the labor market, have higher educational and occupational expectations, obtain more education, experience less unemployment, and get better jobs with higher pay. Ornstein, Sewell and Hauser, and Blau and Duncan report similar findings -- the respondent's education and father's education have only an indirect effect, which is transmitted through two other variables. Parnes also finds that occupational aspirations of blacks are greater than those of whites, when parental occupations and curriculum are separately held constant. Thus, for black and white youth with parents of the same occupational status, black youth have higher occupational aspirations than white youth (Ornstein, 1976). Phyllis Wallace (1972) finds that both positive and negative work experiences of parents strongly affect the work attitudes of teenage children.

PROCESS OF JOB HUNTING: The actual process of job hunting affects the supply decision. The literature presents two views on how youth find jobs -- the life cycle approach and job search behavior approach.

Osterman's life cycle approach (developed from Kalachek's regressions which show that as young people age, their unemployment rates become increasingly more dependent on the national rate and less predetermined) concerns the process of aging, i.e. as youth age, they move through the labor market and take jobs with different kinds of firms at different ages. The labor market operates as a teaching and channeling mechanism. Three major stages in labor market behavior of youth can be identified. The moratorium stage is characterized by young people who are occasionally in the labor market, but for most of whom work is not a primary concern. This covers 16-19 year olds who hold part-time after-school jobs, summer jobs, or temporary jobs for extra money or additional support. The jobs are in the secondary labor market as described by dual labor market theory.

The exploration stage covers ages 20-24. Now the young person actively explores the labor market. Jobs are "bridge jobs" in that they provide training, occupational information, and work habits. They are often in small businesses, because youth are less dependent on a steady income, will accept lower pay, and desire training. Exploration encompasses both job search and the sampling process.

At the end of exploration, the individual discovers what he/she likes to do and secures a job through a reciprocal arrangement between the smaller and larger (primary job's) firm. This is the third stage of settling in, which occurs at about age twenty-five. Statistics reveal that unemployment rates decline rapidly at this age. "Peer relations, marriage, and social relations of production play a role" in this youth labor market behavior, observes Osterman (1975a).

According to the "job search behavior" approach, a model of the behavior of unemployed youth who are conducting job searches can be devised and tested empirically. In one such effort, Stephenson constructed a model consisting of four simultaneous equations which examined four endogenous variables: the cost of job search (for such things as transportation, newspapers, fees to employment agencies, etc); duration of unemployment; relative reservation wages*; and anticipated time on the new job (Stephenson, 1976). These factors lead to differences in search behavior, and Stephenson's hypothesis is that "differences in search behavior help account for youth unemployment differences." Despite the admittedly restrictive size and nature of the study sample, Stephenson concluded that:

> Differential job search costs between white and black youth were found in this study. Search costs were defined as the sum of foregone income, travel costs, and miscellaneous expenses...Whites (were) more likely to have quit their last job and more likely to have a car. Both reasons cause their weekly search costs to be greater than blacks. Yet blacks search longer and they have larger total search costs (Stephenson, 1976).

Search length for white youth averages 4.6 weeks, for black youth, 8.9 weeks, although white youth have search expenditures seven dollars per week greater than black youth. The Stephenson study also reveals that black youth rely more heavily on state employment services. The Department of Labor, however, finds that the proportion of job seekers using informal connections, i.e., friends and relatives, is greater among non-whites than whites (Ornstein, 1976).

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* "Reservation wage is optimal in that it is that wage rate which equates the marginal cost of future search with the expected marginal benefits of continued search" (Stephenson, 1976).

SCHOOL ENROLLMENT AND RETENTION: The supply of youth labor depends significantly on the decision to remain in or to leave school. In fact, the high rate of entry and exit from the labor market is frequently a function of returning to school. "Male teenage participation in the market has fallen, reflecting higher school attendance, which in the long run raises productivity," states Kalachek (Kalachek, 1973). Labor market participation is an option, but mandatory school attendance limits youth employment availability -- it is often difficult to arrange hours or part-time work around a school schedule.

The decision to remain in or leave school is related to the overall business cycle. Edwards examines the response of school enrollment and retention rates to changes in overall business conditions. Results for sixteen to seventeen year old males (all races) show no significant relationships between the unemployment rate and school retention and enrollment rates. Non-white young males are more likely to remain in school during periods of high unemployment -- they react to cyclical variations in the economy. Female youth have a strong negative relationship between unemployment rates and the enrollment-retention rates; when unemployment is high, school retention and enrollment rates are low. Edwards explains this sex difference on the basis of opportunity cost (foregone earnings). The opportunity cost of remaining in school for girls varies less over the business cycle than the opportunity cost for boys. Therefore, during an economic downswing (a period of high unemployment), the opportunity cost of remaining in school for girls will be much higher than for boys, because girls' opportunity costs decrease at a slower rate. This difference results, according to Edwards, from the higher home productivity for girls; girls have three choices, -- school, work, or home, while men (traditionally) have only two -- school or work (Edwards, 1976).

Education also contributes to the labor supply decision in an indirect way. It provides youth with valuable labor market information and increases workers' productivity and wages -- education creates human capital (Kalachek, 1973). Ornstein shows that youth with more education use indirect employment methods less often than their less-educated counterparts. Welch studies the returns from schooling and finds that four additional years of schooling, high school or college, increase white and black incomes by 40 percent and 30 percent respectively. Maximum returns to both races occur in the 9-12 years of school interval. The correlation Welch found between the extent of occupational information and years of schooling and hourly wage rate leads Parnes and Kohen to suggest that "part of the return to additional education may be a reflection of education's contribution to labor market skills and know-how as distinguished from purely vocational skills and know-how" (Parnes and Kohen, 1975).

OTHER FACTORS: Economists acknowledge a variety of other factors in supply decisions; however, gaps exist in empirical research. This is perhaps the case because these factors are attitudinal and, therefore, reflect individual tastes and preferences. An example of the significance of attitudinal factors is "the discouraged worker phenomenon." That undefined set of circumstances which leads to discouraged young workers who give up the search for work altogether is a real concern, because 200,000 white youth and 123,000 black youth fell into this category in a recent official measure. Although percentages are small with respect to the total youth population, 1974 saw a 41 percent increase in discouraged white workers and a 78 percent increase for blacks (Wescott, 1976).

Wallace's study of Black Females in Urban Poverty Neighborhoods (1972) provides insight into the discouraged worker phenomenon. Young black women see themselves as the least preferred, the marginal of the marginals. How this perception is translated into non-participation by an individual is unclear, however.

Another factor in the youth supply decision is the availability of transportation. Because youth are "transit dependent," they are limited in their job search to areas well served by public transportation. The problem of youth mobility is greatest in rural and poverty districts. Due to the movement of industry to areas outside the central city, transportation is not always available, so that jobs, if they do exist, are inaccessible (Falcocchio, 1974). Central city employment has declined in every sector except selected services (Mooney, 1969). A more recent study, however, comes to the more hopeful conclusion that "during periods of strong national aggregate demand, central city job losses are much less severe" (Harrison, 1974).

Another often cited factor in the youth supply decision is federal and state regulation. It is argued that legal barriers with respect to age, permitted hours of work, and protective provisions restrict youth to certain jobs. Jobs for which they do qualify often become overcrowded (Reubens, 1976). This proposition has been heatedly debated, and little by way of established fact is available.

Factors Influencing the Demand for Youth Labor

This section summarizes research on the demand side of the employment of youth.

AGGREGATE ECONOMY: A determining factor in the demand for youth labor is the state of the aggregate economy. Perrella states, "in general, business conditions have been the most important factor in the employment and unemployment of young people" (Perrella, 1971). Spring asserts that "there is no way in which training and community organization can substitute for job availability" (Spring, 1976).

Dual labor market economists view the overall economy as a catalyst in the adolescent transition to stable life. If the labor market is slack, people cannot find stable jobs, so the teenage group continues its adolescent behavior (Doeringer, 1975).

The youth labor market is sensitive to the cyclical variations of the economy. As employment expands, the youth labor market expands (Lerman, 1970). Osterman reaches similar conclusions, but his study includes two age groups. He finds that when the economy is slack, 18-19 year olds gain relative to 22-24 year olds, but when the economy is strong, the reverse occurs. This is because the unemployment rate of the older group is more sensitive to the cycle than the younger group. "Thus, in a slack economy, the unemployment rate of the older group rises relatively more than that of the younger group and in an upswing it falls relatively more" (Osterman, 1975a).

In economic downturns, Bednarzik's regression analysis showed a strong positive relationship between the level of part-time employment (which youth engage in heavily) and the unemployment rate. The magnitude of cyclical effects are greater in the downswing than in the recovery period -- employers reduce workers' hours more readily than they reestablish their hours (Bednarzik, 1975).

The degree of cyclical sensitivity of the youth labor market raises important policy questions. Godwin cites Lerman and Marshall:

> ...exclusive reliance upon monetary and fiscal policies to achieve full employment is self-defeating mainly because these strategies have the effect of generating inflationary pressures in the labor market for highly skilled workers long before they can reduce unemployment in the markets for the unskilled and semi-skilled where most young workers, racial minorities and other disadvantaged workers are concentrated. Therefore, both are convinced that full employment without inflation is possible if monetary and fiscal policies are supplemented with a wide variety of selective employment and training measures to eliminate specific structural barriers in specific labor markets and to create public jobs for workers who do not have adequate employment opportunities (Godwin, 1976).

Mooney also finds that federal fiscal and monetary policies have a disproportionate effect on central city employment for blacks. During periods of high unemployment, underutilization factors are likely to have an effect on the distribution of employment. Firms tend to remove their least productive firms from production first, and less efficient plants are often located in inner cities. Thus, black youth lose employment opportunities in the central cities (Mooney, 1969).

AREA OF RESIDENCE: Area of residence is related to the demand for youth labor. Employment opportunities and unemployment rates vary throughout the four major regions of the country, reflecting different populations and industrial bases. The North Central and North East areas are more sensitive to economic downturns, because of their dependence on manufacturing. The decline in Western employment opportunities is the result of cutbacks in aerospace and defense related production. Southern regions are characterized by light manufacturing and service jobs and consequently have experienced smaller declines in employment opportunities (Gellner, 1974).

Occupations of teenagers appear to be more related to area of residence than to race, according to one study. Traditional youth jobs are more available in suburban and non-metropolitan areas (Wescott, 1976). The concentration of youth, especially blacks, in central city residences causes a geographic separation from growing employment opportunities in the suburbs and metropolitan rings. Noll states, however, that "all findings indicate that jobs, particularly for the less skilled, are easier to find in the central city", so there is some debate over this point (Kain, 1974).

EDUCATION AND EXPERIENCE: Education and experience play a large role in the demand for youth labor. Education is thought to be a factor in the employer's hiring decision, because it creates human capital and develops the ability to learn quickly and to adjust to new experiences and environments (Kalachek, 1973). In fact, out-of-school unemployment rates are closely related to the years of schooling completed (Hedges, 1976). Ornstein asserts that the most important characteristic of a person who enters the labor force is his/her level of educational attainment. He finds, however, that for whites, a greater level of education secures a better job, while for blacks, a greater level of experience makes the difference (Ornstein, 1976). Stevenson's regression analysis shows that more schooling for the total population raised the employment share for black youth and the occupational share for both white and black youth. But for black youth alone, an increase in schooling had no effect on their level of employment and had a negative effect on occupational shares in managers, operatives, laborers, sales, and crafts (Stevenson, 1973).

High unemployment rates for minority youth led Young to explore unemployment among Spanish-speaking youth. She found that their school dropout rate was more than double that for whites. She attributed this to language barriers, financial needs of their families, and limited/inferior education in their native countries. If level of education is a factor in employers' hiring decisions, the high dropout rate among Spanish-speaking youth could explain their high unemployment rate (Young, 1973). Before the Joint Economic Committee in 1976, Anderson reported that employers' labor demand is changing in favor of greater skill and education. Dual labor market economists find little value in educational attainment and experience for youth because they are assigned to the secondary labor market despite their education or experience (Doeringer, 1975; Osterman, 1975b).

SEX, RACE, AND AGE DISCRIMINATION: How do sex, race, and age of youth affect employers' hiring decisions? Researchers agree that sex discrimination is exhibited toward young women, especially young black women (Wallace, 1972). When age and race are controlled, sex has an important effect on the jobs in which youth are employed (Wescott, 1976). Because of the type of work performed, hourly wage rates are greater for young men than for young women (Perrella, 1971).

Age also functions within the demand for youth labor. Osterman's entire study is based on the statistic which reveals a dramatic decline in unemployment rates at age twenty-five. Studies indicate that hourly rates of pay increase with age (Perrella, 1971) and the promotions are explained by age and seniority (Osterman, 1975a).

According to one study, racial discrimination acts more as an impediment to finding a job in the first place (Welch, 1973). The effect of racial discrimination on employment opportunities is examined by many economists through the evaluation of housing segregation. Mooney and Kain see geographic constraints on residential choices of blacks as a factor which limits their employment opportunities (Mooney, 1969; Kain, 1974). Masters and Harrison find that housing segregation has no effect on black earnings levels. Harrison finds that white earnings are highest in the suburbs, second highest in the central city non-poverty areas, and lowest in central city poverty areas, while black male earnings are greater in central city non-poverty areas than in the suburbs (Harrison, 1974; Masters, 1974).

MINIMUM WAGE: The effect of minimum wage legislation on the demand for youth labor and unemployment has become an unresolvable debate. Traditionally, minimum wage legislation is assumed by most economists to reduce employment in covered labor markets when legislated wages increase. The academic debate can be illustrated by two studies. King calculates that a small increase in the minimum wage will improve the welfare of youth. Katz, on the other hand, finds a higher elasticity of demand; therefore, an increase in the minimum wage reduces youth's welfare (King, 1974). Others suggest that fair employment legislation and minimum wage legislation have no effect on the employment situation (Stevenson, 1973). This type of controversy characterizes minimum wage literature. Authors and researchers on this subject include Lovell, Fischer, Katz, Brozen, Adie and Chapin, Kosters and Welch, Thurow, Sully, Barth, Easley and Ferns, Burns, Hashimato, and Mincer and Gavett. (Fischer's article, "Minimum Wage and Teenage Unemployment," provides an excellent synthesis of the literature.)

Other types of studies concerning minimum wage legislation find that youth suffer greater employment problems in low wage areas than in high wage areas, since the national minimum wage prevents youth wages relative to adult wages from dropping as much in low as in high SMSA's (Lerman, 1970). Other researchers direct their attention to the effects of suspending minimum wage legislation. Doeringer asserts that suspension of minimum wages to help youth might mean the supplanting of adult women and minorities in secondary sector employment opportunities (Doeringer, 1975).

* * *

There is considerably more economic research available than is covered in this section. These few pages, it is hoped, will illustrate the value of careful and thorough integration and synthesis of the whole of youth labor market research.

PART II

EVALUATIONS OF EXISTING PROGRAMS: A SYNTHESIS

SECTION 1

OCCUPATIONAL EDUCATION AND LEARNING THROUGH EXPERIENCE

Career Education

The Office of Education defines career education as "the totality of experiences through which one learns about and prepares to engage in work as part of her or his way of living" (An Introduction to Career Education, 1975). The "career education movement" for educational reform was formally initiated in 1971 by former U.S. Commissioner of Education, Sidney Marland, in response to the widespread perception of a serious mismatch between educational preparation and work requirements.

Following several years of administrative initiatives undertaken by the Office of Education, Congress in 1974 appropriated $10 million for development and implementation of the career education concept. The objectives of Congress in allocating these funds were the following:

> (1) by the time every child has completed secondary school, he should be prepared for gainful or maximum employment and full participation in society according to his or her ability, (2) local educational agencies have an obligation to provide such preparation for all students, and (3) each state and local agency should offer programs of career education which provide a wide variety of options designed to prepare each child for maximum employment and participation (Annual Evaluation Report on Programs Administered by the U.S. Office of Education, 1975).

The activities mandated to achieve these objectives were:

1. Develop information on needs for career education.
2. Promote a national dialogue which will encourage state and local agencies to determine and adopt the best career education approach for children they serve.
3. Assess the status of career education programs and practices, including a reassessment of stereotyping of career opportunities by race or sex.
4. Provide for demonstration of the best current career education programs and practices by developing and testing exemplary programs and practices based on varying theories.
5. Provide training and retraining of persons to conduct career education programs.
6. Develop state and local plans for implementing career education programs.

At the present time,evaluation studies on the implementation and effectiveness of the career education concept are sparse; there is as yet no body of quantitative or qualitative data on the impact of career education programs throughout the country. However, scholars and observers appear to agree that career education is having a generally salutary effect on the educational climate. Ellis (in A Report to the Nation on Vocational Education, 1975) states that

> The introduction of the career education concept, which emphasizes the necessity for both vocational and academic instruction, has apparently had a positive effect on vocational education. Leaders promoting the introduction of career education in the schools have generated support for the notion that all persons need to know about the world of work and that all persons should have some kind of saleable skill.

The long-held misconception that vocational education attracts less academically able students has been somewhat dispelled. A recent national survey (1975) on the status of career education undertaken for the National

Advisory Council on Career Education concludes that:

> Throughout the country, the words "career education" were being heard ever more frequently, and the USOE guidelines were receiving much discussion and were having an impact in many localities. In the one-quarter of responding districts in which career education efforts were described as based on those guidelines, the level of career education activity was higher than in the other three-quarters of the districts. In terms of a pervasive reform of education, career education was beginning to have a visible impact on schools across the country in 1974-75. Its acceptance and implementation were still tentative, however, as many school districts waited to see whether "it really works" (McLaughlin, 1976).

In regard to what is actually happening in school programs across the country, the survey analysis points to limited implementation of the career education concept.

- The majority of local school districts surveyed indicated that program activities directed specifically toward career education goals were "limited".
- Only 3% were engaged in state development activities that meet OE guidelines.
- 20% of teachers had been involved in career education activities.
- The most innovative programs are occurring in the earlier grades; traditional activities predominate at the secondary level and tend to be carried out by counselors rather than teachers.
- Levels of career education activity were higher where representatives of the work world were reported involved.
- The most effective activities for students were reported to be those in which students and work world representatives were brought together in one way or another (McLaughlin, 1976).

Information on the status of career education efforts at the state level is provided by the 1975 CEEB State-Level Study in Career Education. The final report of this analysis focuses on education-to-work linkages, documents the variety of existing linkages, and proposes new and improved mechanisms. Four states with a high level of career education activity (California, Florida, New Jersey, and Ohio) were selected as survey sites to investigate the range of existing school-to-work linkages at the secondary and postsecondary level.

The investigators found that advisory councils or work experience programs were the most common linkage mechanisms; additionally, they found

> that educational institutions typically focus on efforts to solicit information about the nature and characteristics of specific occupations through the advisory council and other more informal mechanisms. In settings where participation and collaboration on program evaluation and curriculum development occur, students are more likely to be engaged in work experience for some period of time (Ferrin and Arbeiter, 1975).

Of particular interest is the authors' finding that "in general, educators appear to be placing greater emphasis on bringing the processes of education and work closer together and relatively less emphasis on efforts to align the exit requirements of one system with the entry requirements of the other"(Ferrin and Arbeiter, 1975).

A significant number of innovative career education programs at the local level have been funded through Part D of the Vocational Education Act of 1963. These projects serve as demonstration sites within each state and are intended to provide operational examples of career education activities at the local level.

The first cycle of such projects was initiated in 1971; results of these efforts were reported in An Evaluation of Vocational Exemplary Projects, Development Associates, 1975. (No updated reports are currently available.) The study reports that the program did not achieve its desired impact: "... the negative findings were attributed to a lack of clearly defined objectives, definitions, managerial requirements, and procedures at both the Federal and local levels" (Annual Evaluation Report, OE, 1975). Based on analyses of student responses, the investigators concluded that the greatest impact of the program was at the elementary school level. The primary focus was found to be elementary and secondary familiarization activities. The authors found:

- -- Little work-experience or exchanges of personnel;
- -- Skill-training offered only to non-college bound students;
- -- Little assistance in obtaining employment;
- -- Insufficient counseling available to students (Development Associates, 1975).

The locally based exemplary projects reviewed above have not been the only pilot programs in career education supported by the Office of Education. During the early 70's, four models of career education were developed, and demonstration projects to test their effectiveness were established in sites across the country. These models are the Comprehensive (school-based) Career Education Model; the Experience-Based Career Education Model; the Home-Community Based Career Education Model; and the Family-Residential Career Education Model.

The Comprehensive Career Education Model is conceived as a system-wide plan that will show how to modify the present curriculum (K-12) so that children are exposed to career-related activities throughout the first twelve years of school. Six sites were selected to develop and test this model: Los Angeles, California; Hackensack, New Jersey; Atlanta, Georgia; Jefferson County, Colorado; Pontiac, Michigan; and Mesa, Arizona. Evaluations of the projects indicate that participants are enthusiastic about the program (Brickell, 1973), but no studies are available which evaluate the model's effectiveness in terms of work experience, employment opportunities, and earnings.

Evaluations of the Home and Family-based Models are in progress and not available at this time; preliminary studies report, however, that participants in the programs believe them to be beneficial. A cost effectiveness analysis of the Family/Residential project of the Mountain-Plains Education and Economic Development Program, Inc. found that absence of good program data essentially precluded any reliable estimate of costs and benefits. (See Stromsdorfer, 1975.)

Experience-Based Career Education

An important and closely watched innovation in the area of career education is the EBCE model. The purpose of this program is to integrate experience and knowledge about the world of work with a strong academic education.

Under the auspices of the National Institute of Education, four regional educational laboratories and cooperating school systems have developed variants of the experience-based model in Charleston, West Virginia; San Francisco, California; Portland, Oregon; and Philadelphia, Pennsylvania.

These programs share a number of key elements which make them significantly different in focus and structure from the traditional vocational or cooperative education program:

-- an emphasis on using community sites as the principal bases for learning experiences;

-- an integration of the traditional role of teacher and counselor and a sharing of these roles with other adults in the community;

-- an individualized instructional system based upon assessment of student needs, prescription of experience-based learning activities and synthesis of community experiences;

-- a basic skills component that focuses on reading, writing and mathematics as they are used by adults in the broad community;

-- a life skills component that allows students to obtain a variety of real experiences in political and civic activities, personal finance and maintenance of personal health;

-- a career development component that guides each student through a sequence of career-oriented learning activities at various levels (exploration, indepth investigations, etc.);and

-- a system of accountability that fosters students' assumption of responsibility and assures the program's educational integrity (Burt, 1974).

Although most of the evaluative studies of EBCE to date have been designed to assist in program develdpment and modification, some data on outcomes are available. The EBCE pilot programs were studied to determine outcomes in three areas: community support, academic quality, and programmatic effects. Results of the studies (as reported in Bucknam, "The Impact of EBCE - An Evaluator's Viewpoint", 1976) are as follows:

COMMUNITY SUPPORT: Three hundred and eight parents of EBCE students were surveyed about their reactions to the program in which their child was enrolled. They were asked to:

1) describe changes in their children that they thought were a result of the program;
2) indicate their opinions of the effectiveness of the program in teaching effective communication, responsibility, career awareness, and basic academic skills;
3) indicate whether they would want their child to participate in EBCE, if they had it to do again.

The responses of the parents to all three questions were overwhelmingly positive. For example, in answer to question 2, it was found that:

-- More than 93% of the parents thought the EBCE program was either highly (63%) or somewhat (31%) effective in having students learn to communicate effectively with others.

-- More than 91% of the parents thought the EBCE program was highly (59%) or somewhat (32%) effective in having students learn responsibility.

-- More than 95% of the parents thought the EBCE program was highly (63%) or somewhat (43%) effective in having students learn about and be more aware of career opportunities.

-- More than 87% of the parents thought the EBCE program was highly (41%) or somewhat (46%) effective in having students learn basic academic skills such as reading, writing, and math.

Resource persons in the community associated with the program were also questioned about their responses to the EBCE program. Again, a majority of the respondents indicated positive reactions to the program and a desire to continue working with it.

ACADEMIC ACHIEVEMENT: Evaluation results show that the students were not academically hurt by participation in the program. In testing the hypothesis that there would be no significant difference on three sub-tests of the CTBS for experiential and control students, findings were that of 12 possible comparisons, 10 were not significantly different and 2 were significantly different in favor of the control groups.

PROGRAMMATIC OUTCOMES: These are most diverse, since each of the four programs used measures of most relevance to its particular program.

For those instruments that were used at more than one program, it was found that:

1) the experimental group scored significantly higher than the control group on oral communication skills and career planning attitudes;

2) student attitudes toward the school environment improved significantly over controls since involvement in the program (as measured by the assessment of student attitudes);

3) experimental students drop out of school at a rate of 5% while control students drop out at a rate of 15%.

STATUS OF PROGRAM: NIE is currently testing and examining implementation strategies to make the program available for wider use in communities across the country; in addition, OE is sponsoring EBCE demonstrations under Part D of VEA (Bucknam, 1976).

Vocational Education

The passage of the Vocational Education Act of 1963 represented a significant reappraisal of vocational education programs in this country and an attempt to redirect the thrust of such programs toward a broader conception of vocational education and toward service of a much wider population of youth and adults. The stated objective of the 1963 legislation was that:

> ...persons of all ages in all communities of the State - those in high school, those who have completed or discontinued their formal education and are preparing to enter the labor market, those who have already entered the labor market but need to upgrade their skills or learn new ones, and those with special educational handicaps - will have ready access to vocational training or retraining which is of high quality, which is realistic in the light of actual or anticipated opportunities for gainful employment, and which is suited to their needs, interests, and ability to benefit from such training(Mangum, May 1968).

To implement this goal, two major changes in vocational education programs were mandated by the new law: first, that unified programs rather than categorical occupational training should be implemented to better serve the needs of all people; and second, that vocational training should be available to all those who could not succeed in regular programs because of economic, educational, or other handicaps.

Five years after the passage of the Vocational Education Act of 1963, an evaluation of the impact of the legislation undertaken for the Ford

Foundation (Mangum, 1968) found that little had been accomplished to meet the objectives of the Act. The study reviewed major evaluations that had been completed during the five year period under consideration and noted (as did most of the later evaluations) that lack of adequate reporting and data seriously handicaps efforts to achieve definitive evaluation of the results of vocational education programs. In summary, Mangum's study reports the following conclusions:

Retention Rates and Relevance

- Vocational education dropout rates are higher than those of other programs when controlled for ability and socioeconomic status.
- More generalized training appears to increase the likelihood of students' attaining a training-related job; specialized training reduces the probability of training relatedness.

Employment and Earnings

- Short-term (up to 6 years) employment and earnings experience of vocational graduates compares favorably with graduates of academic or general curricula.

Benefits and Costs

- The type of high school training in general appears to make little difference in employment and earnings. Vocational graduates tend to have an initial advantage which is overcome and surpassed in time by the more broadly trained academic student. However, when the lower average ability and relatively unfavorable socioeconomic backgrounds of the vocational graduates are considered, they do appear to retain a net advantage from their training. This does not mean that present vocational education methods are the best derivable, however. It justifies only the conclusion that, for those not continuing beyond high school, preparation for employment is better than no preparation for employment.

The Mangum study includes reviews of a number of innovative programs undertaken at the local and state levels following the passage of the 1963 legislation. An encouraging number of such projects were working to implement _integrated_ programs of academic and vocational education that simultaneously provided personal, social, and career development for the student. Mangum concludes, however, that:

> the public system is not well designed to make the need for change and adaptation apparent and attractive. Discontent and, therefore, experimentation and innovation seem to come primarily from outside the system. The need to structure the availability of public funds so as to motivate adoption of available "best practice" adapted to the needs of particular communities, population groups and individuals is apparent.

The conclusions cited by Mangum in his 1968 study point to concerns that continued throughout the 1960's about the effectiveness of vocational education in preparing youth for the world of work. New legislation, in the form of amendments to the Act of 1963, was passed in 1968 to provide more funds and clearer direction to vocational education programs. The broad objectives of the Vocational Education Amendments of 1968 were to:

- increase vocational education funding to curb the influx of underprepared people in the labor market;
- reorient home economics to the needs of the disadvantaged;
- begin preparation for employment at an earlier age, particularly for the disadvantaged;
- encourage the growth of technical programs at the post-secondary level;
- sponsor new and innovative concepts through earmarked funds for exemplary and cooperative programs, residential schools, curriculum development and teacher training; and

- encourage long-range planning on the national and state level, applying leverage for change by mandating independent national and state advisory councils, and providing for more aggressive Federal leadership through a tighter system of state plans (Ellis, 1975).

In the last eight years, numerous studies have been undertaken to determine both the effects of these major pieces of legislation on the vocational education system and the success of vocational education programs throughout the country in achieving the goals of the legislation. In the following pages, we will present the conclusions of the important studies done during this period with particular emphasis on their findings with regard to the school-to-work transition.

Policy Issues and Analytical Problems in Evaluating Vocational Education, National Planning Association, 1972.

Nature of Study

An analysis of current and available information on the evaluation of vocational education and its policy implications.

Findings

Based on the National Longitudinal Survey data, analysis indicates that vocational education has a small effect on earnings vis-a-vis the secondary academic and general curricula.

...For a variety of major socioeconomic subgroups there is no statistically significant difference (in employment rates) between vocational students and college preparatory, general and commercial students....There may be no net employment benefits to the vocational high school curriculum.

Students in the vocational curriculum are much less likely to receive some college education than are college preparatory students.

The gross drop-out rate for vocational education students is higher than for college preparatory or general curriculum students.

The percentage of secondary and postsecondary vocational graduates unemployed and looking for work is the same for both groups.

75-80% of postsecondary graduates gain training-related work; 50% of high school graduates do.

A much larger proportion of junior college graduates go on to further education, often full-time four-year colleges, as compared with those in other postsecondary institutions. Thus, if a high value is also placed on flexibility with regard to career goals and the possibility of continued education for even those who may consider themselves to be in a terminal vocational program, then higher marks must be given to vocational education at the junior college level.

The Effectiveness of Public and Proprietary Occupational Training, A Technical Report submitted to the National Institute of Education, Wellford W. Wilms, 1974.

Nature of Study

This is a study of postsecondary students enrolled at almost 1000 community colleges and technical schools and in 10,000 proprietary schools across the country. The purpose of the investigation was to test the effectiveness of public and proprietary schools by following a large sample of graduates into the labor market and assessing their success and to see if there were systematic differences in the public and proprietary students' backgrounds that could have affected their employment experience. Data were gathered on a random sample of 21 public and 29 proprietary schools in 4 large metropolitan areas. (Samples of students and graduates from 6 large and growing occupational programs were selected to study.) 85% of the graduates of the schools were contacted and interviewed by the National Opinion Research Center.

Findings

The author's major hypothesis - that after controlling for differences in backgrounds of graduates, proprietary graduates would have more labor market success than public school graduates -- was not confirmed. Additional findings of interest (based on the survey of graduates) include the following:

> Only two out of ten graduates from both public and proprietary schools who chose professional or technical-level training ever got those jobs. The rest became clerks or took low-paying, unrelated jobs.
>
> Almost eight out of ten public and proprietary graduates from lower-level clerical or service worker programs got those jobs but, with the exception of secretaries, barely earned the federal minimum wage.
>
> Public and proprietary graduates had about the same occupational success, after controlling for differences in their backgrounds.
>
> There was no relationship between public schools' characteristics and the success of their graduates.
>
> There were limited associations between proprietary schools' characteristics and their graduates' later success. Graduates who earned the most generally went to proprietary schools that were moderately large with higher-paid teachers who spent fewer hours in class.
>
> Neither kind of school compensated for less-advantaged students' backgrounds. Women always earned less than men, and in all but one case, ethnic minorities earned less than whites in the same jobs.

Wilms concludes, on the basis of these findings, that "post-secondary occupational education, both public and private, maintains class and income inequalities rather than overcomes them."

A Report to the Nation on Vocational Education, prepared for Project Baseline, Dr. Mary Ellis, November 1975.

Nature of Study

> The report is an outgrowth of Project Baseline, the first national study attempting to identify the accomplishments of vocational education since the passage of the 1968 Amendments. Of the several components of this study, the one most relevant to our purposes is its analysis of the extent to which the objectives of the 1968 vocational legislation were being met during the 1971-1974 period.

Findings

Quantitative evidence suggests that vocational education programs have been serving greater numbers of persons during the 1971-74 period, but there is a dearth of qualitative evidence indicating the extent to which programs have achieved specific objectives mandated in the legislation. In regard to particular "transition" issues, the author reports that "vocational education has developed greatly improved relationships with the employment community primarily through the mechanism of national, state, and local advisory bodies."

As regards the adequacy of efforts to provide vocational education to disadvantaged groups, the study reports that "educational services to persons with special needs have not grown to the extent anticipated."

Like Wilms, Ellis concludes on the basis of this extensive survey of all vocational education programs that "vocational education...has had no appreciable influence in changing the social structure..."

The Contributions of Vocational Education, Training, and Work Experience to the Early Career Achievements of Young Men, John T. Grasso, Ohio State University, July 1975.

Nature of Study

Using data from the National Longitudinal Study of Young Men for 1966-1969, the author has studied high school graduates who did not attend college to determine whether there are differences in the effectiveness of the several high school curricula -- either alone or in conjunction with post-school training programs -- in preparing young men for work.

Findings

Vocational students show no more general knowledge of the work world than other students.

Analysis of skill level of jobs did not support the view that commercial vocational graduates are more able than others to obtain skilled jobs.

Over 80% of all graduates reported desire for further training; over 50% received such training; for blacks, 90% desire further training; 40% receive it.

> There is no clear superiority in terms of wages earned for any curriculum for those who do not attend college.
>
> In terms of career potential, the commercial and college preparatory students have the most favorable prospects.

The author's conclusion is that "analysis of the relationship between career preparation of youth and a wide variety of career-relevant performance criteria fails to support the case that vocational education is superior preparation for the world of work for those graduates who do not go on to college."

Work-Study and Cooperative Education

The federal government supports two major programs of school-based work experience for secondary and postsecondary youth: the Cooperative Education Program and Work-Study. The overarching goals of both programs are similar in that their efforts are directed toward assisting needy youth to remain in school through the provision of remunerative work opportunities and toward providing work experience that will better prepare them to enter the full-time job market following graduation. The programs differ in the emphasis given these goals.

The primary purpose of the federally-sponsored Work-Study program is to "assist economically disadvantaged full-time vocational educational students, ages 15-20, to remain in schools through the provision of part-time employment with public employers" (Annual Evaluation Report on Programs Administered by the U.S. Office of Education, FY 1975). During FY '75, approximately 37,000 secondary and 10,000 postsecondary students participated in Work-Study under Part H, VEA, working typically at clerical and unskilled blue-collar jobs.

The major evaluation of work-study currently available (An Assessment of School-Supervised Work Education Programs by Steven M. Frankel, System Development Corporation, 1973) reports the following findings:

> Dropout prevention (work-study) programs are limited by their basic objective which is to keep students in school by providing them with financial assistance. While many of these programs have additional goals such as improving disadvantaged youngsters' attitudes toward school and work, practically none of these programs attempt to offer students related classwork or intensive vocational training. When viewed in terms of their limited objectives, dropout prevention programs appear to be successful. It was found that they are more likely than any other type of program to offer students jobs paying at least the minimum wage, but they were second by a slight amount to specific occupational training programs as most likely to improve students' attitudes toward school.

Perhaps the most negative finding of the study is the evidence that the work-study experience, for most students, contributes little to their understanding of the world of work or offers few opportunities for career exploration. Seventy-five percent of the secondary work-study students were located in the lowest category of the job responsibility scale.

COLLEGE WORK-STUDY PROGRAM: In addition to the vocational work-study program funded under VEA, College Work-Study (funded under Higher Education Act, 1965, Title IV) provides grants to higher education institutions "to stimulate and promote the part-time employment of students with great financial need...who need earnings to finance their courses of study" (Annual Report, OE, 1975). The program is directed primarily toward achieving the social goal of equal opportunity and access to higher education for poor students and is not directly relevant to the school-work transition issue. However, an important (1973) evaluation of the program does indicate that the employment opportunities provided under the program may have positive effects beyond financial assistance for students. The Federal College Work-Study Program, 1973, reports that:

> Generally, financial aid administrators -- together with employers -- are actively attempting to provide students with work that goes far beyond the provision of tuition dollars. Despite chronic insufficiency of funds, despite the administrative uncertainties and complexities, some schools are successfully placing students in interesting, responsible, challenging jobs -- both on- and off-campus -- jobs which link student and professor, which create feelings of worthwhileness, which support community action programs, which offer students an opportunity for future employment (Friedman et al., 1973).

Although these goals have not been adequately realized in many settings, students in this program appear to feel that CWS has offered them a chance to learn useful skills and attitudes in the course of their employment, in addition to receiving the crucial benefit of financial assistance. In regard to the major objective of the program -- enabling needy students to attend college -- the Federal Work-Study Program evaluation concludes that CWS has been successful in providing such assistance. However, the United States Office of Education in its 1975 Annual Evaluation Report indicated some concern that CWS was serving a relatively middle-class and non-minority population (67.5% of CWS participants were from non-minority groups; over 17% were dependent undergraduates with family incomes in excess of $11,999).

COOPERATIVE EDUCATION: When the first cooperative education program was introduced at the University of Cincinnati seventy years ago, it was intended to provide students with an opportunity to alternate academic studies with relevant work experience in which they would apply what they had learned in the classroom. This general purpose -- the educational integration of theory and practice -- is still commonly taken to distinguish cooperative education programs from work-study. In fact, however, contemporary cooperative education programs often are not easily distinguishable in purpose and structure from work-study programs. According to a recent report, "there is no single, universally accepted operational definition of cooperative education" -- beyond the general concept of "combining class-room studies and work-experience as part of a post-secondary education program" (Consad, 1975). This definition unfortunately excludes the secondary "cooperative work-study" programs in which over 140,000 students were enrolled in FY 1975. The Office of Education program guidelines at both the secondary and postsecondary level stipulate that the work experience aspect of the programs must be related to the instruction received in school. In addition, postsecondary projects funded under the Higher Education Act of 1972 (P.L. 89-329) must alternate full-time academic study with periods of full-time employment. It is important to note that studies of cooperative education generally tend to include but are not limited to programs that meet the criteria of the Office of Education.

Despite the definitional ambiguities noted above, evaluations of cooperative education programs report positive results. Summaries of major studies follow.

Executive Summary, An Assessment of School-Supervised Work Education Programs, Steven Frankel, Ed. D., System Development Corporation, 1973.

Nature of Study

Study objectives were to examine the different configurations of work education programs to determine how well they were meeting their objectives and to make recommendations for modification or expansion. In the course of the study, the authors examined 30 cooperative education programs (including two Job Corps programs) at the secondary and postsecondary level.

Findings

Cooperative education programs are more likely than either career exploration or work-study programs to:

- provide job placement services
- have a high rate of job-related placements
- provide students with jobs that offer formal on-the job training
- help students in deciding on an occupation
- provide students with jobs that fit into their career plans
- provide students with jobs that have a high level of responsibility
- provide students with jobs that afford a high degree of satisfaction
- provide students with job-related instruction in school
- have a followup program for their graduates
- have an advisory committee

Cooperative education programs are perceived by students, employers, and school officials to be meeting their needs and objectives.

Negative Findings

Cooperative education programs are most likely to discriminate against students on the basis of attitude.

Cooperative education programs are less effective in reducing student absenteeism.

Cooperative education programs are more apt to interfere with other activities.

Cost-Effectiveness of Selected Cooperative Education Programs as Compared with Vocational Programs without Cooperative Component, Batelle Columbus Laboratories, June, 1973. (As reported in Annual Evaluation Report on Programs Administered by the Office of Education, 1975.)

Nature of Study

An examination of data from 11 school districts in 3 states was conducted to obtain cost comparisons between two types of programs.

Findings

Although effectiveness comparisons based on school data showed no significant difference between the two groups in terms of work experience, a survey of employers showed an important difference in employer attitudes. 59% of employers favored graduates of coop programs; school data supported this, showing that coop students had little trouble finding jobs and that 46% remained full-time with their coop employer.

"Employer Experience with the Recruitment of Cooperative Education Employees, An Analysis of Costs and Benefits", Richard A. Hayes and Jill H. Travis, The Journal of Cooperative Education, Vol. XIII, No. 1, Nov., 1976.

Nature of Study

Using data supplied by 70 private sector employers of cooperative education students for the year ending 1974, the investigators studied recruiting costs and yields, Equal Employment Opportunity experience, employee work performance, labor costs, salary and promotional progression, and employee retention. Nine out of the 70 participating employers were studies in depth; they are referred to below as "Case Study Employers".

Findings

77% of the 60 respondent employers termed their experience in recruiting new cooperative education students as either "excellent" or "good-very good."

Costs of recruiting cooperative education students were from 30-95% less than those of recruiting college graduates among Case Study Employers.

> Almost two-thirds of cooperative education graduates received offers of regular employment from their coop employers and about four-fifths accepted them.

The authors conclude "that it is clear that cooperative education presents employers with excellent opportunities to decrease recruitment costs and increase recruiting yields".

An Economic and Institutional Analysis of the Cooperative Vocational Education Program in Dayton, Ohio, Ernst W. Stromsdorfer and James S. Fackler, March, 1973.

Nature of Study

This important case study was undertaken to determine the educational and economic effects of cooperative vocational education at the secondary level. The authors state their hypothesis in terms of research questions to be answered with descriptive impact statements:

- To what extent does the program aid in the transition from school to work?
- To what extent does the program increase the relevance of formal schooling to one's ultimate career or occupational goal?
- To what extent does the program have a comparative advantage in achieving the above for disadvantaged persons?
- To what extent can the program be generalized for the overall population of high school students, such as students in the general curriculum?
- What is the extent of demand among industries in the event that the program is significantly expanded?
- To what extent does the program affect civic and social attitudes in a positive way?
- To what extent is a student's immediate employability affected by the program?
- To what extent is a student's future education and employability and earnings affected by the program?

Findings

The authors preface their conclusions with the caveat that this study (and previous studies) have methodological problems due to self-selection bias and non-response bias.

EDUCATION EFFECTS

With regard to senior year or last full year Grade Point Average, cooperative students perform at a lower average level than do academic students. Cooperative vocational credits have no different impact than vocational credits in terms of GPA.

There is no difference in average probability of graduation between coop and non-coop students after controlling for curriculum structure.

EARNINGS AND EMPLOYMENT

Coop education does have favorable labor market effects. However, it is the earning of vocational credits that is important for labor market purposes, not whether these were earned at a coop or non-coop school.

Stromsdorfer, in his conclusion, cautions against generalizing the Dayton study results, citing the prosperous, middle-class nature of the city and the high level of community support accorded the vocational and coop programs.

The studies reviewed here focused primarily on secondary level cooperative education. In 1975 Congress mandated a nationwide study of cooperative education at the postsecondary level which has recently been completed. The findings of this important study are summarized below.

Cooperative Education - A National Assessment: Executive Summary, Applied Management Sciences, Inc., Office of Education, Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, 1977.

Nature of Study

The major purposes of this study were to determine the degree to which cooperative education is a viable educational and/or financial aid mechanism for institutions of higher education to adopt and to determine the effectiveness of the federal role in supporting cooperative education through Title IV-D of the Higher Education Act. A number of substudies were carried out to achieve these purposes:

- an examination of the costs and benefits of cooperative education for the three key sets of participants: student, employer, and educational institution;
- a determination of the degree to which cooperative education is a viable career education mechanism;
- an assessment of the national potential for expanding cooperative education in postsecondary institutions; and
- an assessment of the federal role in promoting the growth of postsecondary cooperative education programs.

Findings

The study showed that the great majority of the undergraduate programs are viable for nearly all types of undergraduate institutions and students, as well as for virtually every kind of employer included in the study.

In the case of undergraduate institutions, the coop programs appear to be able to operate in most schools in such a manner that the income they generate at least covers the program expenses, provided that the programs are either relatively small in size or else are comparatively large. It is primarily when programs are just getting started, or when they are caught between the optimum size ranges, that outside funding is needed for them to operate on a break-even basis. Within the institutions, the programs appear to be highly regarded as career education mechanisms and to be providing valuable service as financial aid mechanisms as well.

By using lifetime earnings stream data, the study showed that for every program area in the 4-year and 5-year schools included in the study, participation in coop resulted in graduates more than recovering the opportunity costs of participating in coop and being hired into higher paying jobs which were more closely related to their vocational interests. Similar results were obtained for some program areas in 2-year schools. In fact, the only group which appeared not to benefit from coop participation was students entering college with significant employment experience gained prior to entry.

In regard to employment, coop students typically perform as well, or even better, than their non-coop counterparts and, in about half of the cases, receive lower pay and benefits. Pay differences are more common among smaller firms, but larger firms reap additional benefits through the use of coop as a recruiting mechanism. Over one-third of the coop graduates included in this study eventually accepted jobs with one of their coop employers.

The most valuable service which the IV-D legislation has rendered to the educational community in the past is providing support for coop programs which are either just getting established or else are trying to make the transition from being a small program to becoming a large one.

The major negative finding was that career counseling is one of the weakest components in the coop system, when student expectations are contrasted with institutional resource allocations.

Work Experience and Career Exploration Program (WECEP)

The Work Experience and Career Exploration Program of the Department of Labor is one example of how the ideas demonstrated in the postsecondary cooperative education movement have been transformed through their application in secondary schools. WECEP was established by an amendment to Child Labor Regulation #3, issued pursuant to the Fair Labor Standards Act (effective November 5, 1969, to August 31, 1972). This amendment provides for necessary deviations from the child labor standards to permit students to participate in the program. The pilot program, designed as a research experiment, expired in August, 1973. The amended regulation has been extended beyond the original experimental period.

WECEP students during the experimental period could be employed as many as 28 hours (since revised to 23 hours) during any week and as many as four hours (now three hours) on a school day while school was in session. The maximum number of hours a person 14 or 15 years of age could be employed when school was not in session was eight hours a day and 40 hours a week. The experimental program was set up in terms of units of 12 to 20 students under the direction of a teacher-coordinator. The program provided for both a course of study and actual job experience. School classes included academic courses stipulated by state requirements for graduation as well as instruction in job-related and employability skill development. Individualized or remedial instruction was given where needed. Credits toward graduation were awarded for both in-school related instruction and on-the-job work experience.

We have reviewed what appears to be the only major study of WECEP, Ernst Stromsdorfer's "economic analysis" (1973). The use of this phrase is somewhat misleading in that the author carefully notes that no attempt was made to define the program's benefits and costs as these impacted on student participants, school staff, employers, parents or society at large. The economic analysis was used to test the principal hypothesis that the allocation of time for WECEP enrollees would tend toward an optimal mix of formal education and work experience.

An Economic Analysis of the Work Experience and Career Exploration Program: 1971-1972 School Year, Ernst W. Stromsdorfer, Bloomington, Ind.: Indiana University, July 1973.

WECEP Program Goals

To help school-alienated or disoriented youth (ages 14 and 15) see purpose and value in education. Selected youth are considered to be potential dropouts and the WECEP program is intended to eliminate this probability for participants;

To do the above by providing a vital core of educational programs involving school-supervised work experience and training with exposure to real jobs and careers.

WECEP Program Objectives for Youth Participants

Reduction of the absence and truancy rate and, ultimately, the drop-out rate for "school-alienated or disoriented youth" (ages 14-15);

Improvement of scholastic performance or, at least, no adverse effects on the health, safety, welfare and scholastic performance of the participants due to the relaxation of Child Labor Regulation #3; and

A greater appreciation of occupational alternatives.

Research Objectives

Stromsdorfer's "economic analysis" of WECEP was intended to:

> Provide the DOL Employment Standards Administration with information to determine whether certain provisions in the child labor regulations regarding hours and occupations should be modified permanently;
>
> Provide education administrators with an opportunity to test the academic effectiveness of school and work experience programs for this age group (14-15).

Research Hypothesis

> There is some optimal mix, at any given time in a person's life cycle, between formal education, on-the-job training, labor market activity, and leisure;
>
> For WECEP enrollees (age 14-15), educational benefits will increase up to a point as hours worked increase, then reach a maximum, after which benefits will decline and sometimes become negative.

Research Methodology

Stromsdorfer notes several methodological problems encountered in the sample selection which compromised the desired experimental design:

- Quality of the control group: There was no guarantee that an experimental design (randomly assigning comparable students to the participant and control groups) was used across the participating states. Self-selection bias was an obvious factor: program participation was voluntary. Interview data indicated that WECEP participants were much more likely to have had prior work experience.

- Socio-demographic data: Participant ethnic origin and prior academic achievement data essential to determination of comparability across participant and control groups were lacking. Data on students' parents were entirely lacking.

- Drop-out factor: Records were available only for those WECEP students who completed the school year or semester. Causes of dropping out are unknown. Because it is reasonable to assume that some of the dropouts should be considered program failures, their exclusion from the analysis imparts an unknown degree of upward bias to the results.

- Non-response data: Lack of response had particular impact in the personal participants interview sample and in the samples of teacher-coordinators and WECEP employers.

Findings

Hypothesis of a curvilinear relationship between hours worked and indices of educational performance was confirmed. That is, performance increased as hours worked increased until a point of diminishing returns was reached. This point was estimated at between two and three hours worked per day during school hours.

Risk of physical injury to WECEP participants was not great. During 1971-72 no WECEP students sustained injuries resulting in more than one day's absence.

Employers saw WECEP students as quality equivalent to regular employees and generally paid students the same wage rate. "WECEP students were able to meet the market test and perform effectively."

Generally, WECEP students received no formal on-the-job training, although a few exceptions existed.

Employer evaluations of WECEP students improved over time; the results indicated that the students gained additions to entry skills which increased the value of the student to the business.

Employers indicated a willingness to hire more WECEP students if the minimum wage were lowered.

Employers were largely satisfied with the program: 44% thought no changes were necessary and an additional 13% supported expansion of the program. The largest (11.1%) single area of employer concern focused on the scheduling of student work and school hours.

Students did not sample a wide variety of jobs and within jobs sampled only low skill levels were required. Overall results indicate that the career exploration goal of WECEP was not well implemented.

Females were less likely to experience positive program effects. The small sample size for females may have influenced survey results.

The study was unable to develop models predicting the impact of WECEP on truancy or suspension behavior. Lack of data on program dropouts was also a critical problem in developing behavioral impact models.

Research Conclusions

The program appeared to have no negative effects. Positive effects were measured on educational performance indices of grade point average and days absent. On other indices zero effect was measured.

Hypothesis of curvilinear relationship between education and work experience was confirmed. Evidence suggests that four hours per day and 28 hours per week were not optimal for the population as measured on the mean prior WECEP grade point average (GPA). A higher prior GPA appears to imply a higher optimum number of hours and a lower prior GPA, a lower optimum number of hours.

Alternative Education

Alternative education, although often identified with the Free School movement which burgeoned in the 1960's, in fact encompasses a variety of educational innovations and approaches which have been undertaken both without and within the public school systems in this country. Many of these alternative programs are attempting to bring school and community closer together and to break down the theoretical and practical distinctions between "education" and "work."

Some of the most common alternative secondary programs supported within the public system are:

- "Schools without walls," where students work and study in museums, businesses, hospitals, and other places in the community and learn that learning is not limited to a school building;

- Mini-schools or "schools within schools," which subdivide huge high schools of 3,000 or more students into small, personal units of, for example, 150 students and six teachers who may focus their studies around a special interest such as aviation, art,or anthropology.

- Dropout centers, where school dropouts can get the basic education and vocational skills they missed in regular schools. With about 35% of the nation's students leaving school before graduation, many communities could use such a center.

- Schools for students with special problems, such as academically failing, disruptive,or pregnant students who, without such special programs, would probably leave or be forced out of school.

- Open schools for able students frustrated by typical, traditionally organized schools. Individualized study and self-direction are stressed but, unlike "schools without walls," the program is centered in one building.

- Schools for racial or ethnic groups who feel victimized by traditional schools. While supported by their proponents as necessary for the educational and spiritual rehabilitation of their students, some of these schools have been attacked as discriminatory.

Of the alternatives described above, the most thorough student exposure to the community and the work place appears to be provided by the "Schools Without Walls;" this alternative, pioneered in Philadelphia, Pennsylvania as the Parkway Program in 1969, is now being tried in a number of American cities.

The Parkway program (and most schools without walls) use their community as classroom:

> Courses are offered all around the city -- in churches, corporate offices, cultural institutions or out in the community. Students help hire and evaluate teachers and aid in curriculum planning.

> During a typical day, a student might spend from 9 a.m. to 11 a.m. at a local business or museum, either on his own or as part of a group led by a teacher. After lunch, with a "management group" of other students where Parkway programs and plans are often discussed, he may spend two hours in one of eight tutorial units where he studies the normal state-required subjects. From 3 p.m. to 5 p.m. he might visit another Parkway institution where he is learning while doing (NSPRA, 1972).

Parkway has been fully integrated from the start and has enrolled a student body representative of the school system as a whole. The average attendance at Parkway is significantly higher than at other Philadelphia high schools,and the dropout rate is very low. In addition, the percentage of students attending college is somewhat higher than the average throughout Philadelphia.

Other cities that have adopted the "School Without Walls" concept include Chicago, Illinois (The Metro School); Boston, Massachusetts; New York City (City as School); Madison, Wisconsin; and Cincinnati, Ohio. A self-evaluation of Metro, conducted after only one semester of operation, indicated that most students showed "marked progress in basic reading skills and seemed to have much more positive attitudes about themselves, their teachers and other students, particularly those of another race" (NSPRA, 1972).

Cincinnati's program, (City-wide Learning Community) has made considerable efforts to integrate career exploration and academic learning.

> For example, as a math project, a group of students are exploring careers in aviation in meetings with FAA staff at the airport. Eventually they will learn to fly a plane. on the other hand, another math project involves the student in a math seminar to discuss careers in mathematics. As a

> social studies project, with career exploration experiences, a group of students is studying the powers and duties of the police department, role plays the decisions a police officer must make, investigates the arrest procedure, and learns about their individual rights (Burt, 1974).

In addition to these local or foundation sponsored efforts, a small number of experimental programs were developed in the early 70's with federal (NIE) support. Three school systems (Berkeley, California; Minneapolis, Minnesota; and Franklin Pierce School District, Pierce County, Washington) were awarded funds to test the hypothesis "that if you try to change a whole system, K-12, all at the same time, starting with a base of between 2,000 and 5,000 children, then maybe...you'll have some kind of change, some kind of reform..." (Binswanger, as quoted in NSPRA, 1972, p. 60). Unfortunately, evaluations of these experiments were not available to us.

Community Education

The Community Schools Act, the first federal legislation for community education, was enacted by the 1974 Amendments to the Elementary and Secondary Education Act, Sections #402 and #405 of Public Law 93-380.

The purpose of this legislation is:

> ...to provide educational, recreational, cultural and other related community services, in accordance with the needs, interests, and concerns of the community, through the establishment of the community education program as a center for such activities in cooperation with other community groups (The Community Schools Act, Public Law 93-380, Section #405B).

The legislation defines a community education program as one:

> in which a public building, including but not limited to a public elementary or secondary school or a community or junior college, is used as a community center operated in conjunction with other groups in the community, community organizations, and local governmental agencies to provide educational, recreational, cultural and other related community services for the community that center serves in accordance with the needs, interests, and concerns of that community (Section #405).

Although the number of community education programs has increased substantially over the past decade from 357 in 1967 to 4,344 in 1975 (Migocki, 1976), there appears to be a dearth of evaluative studies. A recent study of the status of evaluation efforts regarding community schools concluded that:

> the practice of program performance evaluation can be broadly characterized as follows:
>
> 1. Performance criteria that can be measured in objective terms are scarce.
>
> 2. In both internal and external evaluations, performance "findings" are typically consensual judgments established by discussion among evaluators who have prepared themselves for the discussions by (a) reviewing evaluation criteria, (b) reviewing program documents, (c) interviewing a number of people who stand in different roles in relation to the program, and (d) reviewing survey instruments used to collect information from persons in one or more key roles related to the program (not always used).
>
> 3. Findings that actual program performance has fallen short of criterion performance, in a moderate share of a relatively long list of criteria, is seemingly a normal state of affairs that is troublesome to neither the evaluators nor the evaluatees.
>
> 4. The absence of recommendations for program improvement, following the evaluation, would be regarded as a surer sign of shortcomings of the evaluation than of excellence of program performance (Boyd, 1977).

Internships

Throughout the country, a constantly increasing number of students are receiving part of their education through participation in government, business, and social service operations. The rapid growth of interest in internships on both the secondary and postsecondary levels has given rise to expanded opportunities for youth to supplement their classroom experience with structured internship programs in the community. Students may now be found in all levels of government bureaucracy, service agencies, and volunteer organizations as well as in a wide variety of private sector enterprises (Zauderer, 1973).

Among the potential benefits of an internship experience to the student are:

- *academic benefits* - the opportunity to interpret learning through experience and develop a personal learning strategy (Zauderer, 1973); to apply theoretical concepts in a real-life setting (Sigmon, 1972a); and to acquire information not available from academic sources (Sigmon, 1972b);
- *personal growth* - the opportunity to clarify values and goals (Humphrey, 1973) and to test out coping and human relations skills (Zauderer, 1973);
- *career development* - the opportunity to explore particular occupations without making a long-term commitment (Davis, 1971).

There are numerous examples of both preprofessional and general education internships but few evaluations exist of these diverse programs. What follows, therefore, is a brief attempt to provide examples of some exemplary internship programs on the national, state, and local level.

EXECUTIVE HIGH SCHOOL INTERNSHIPS OF AMERICA: In operation in 28 school districts in 17 states and the District of Columbia, the Executive High School Internship Program places high school juniors and seniors as special assistants to senior officials in government, private nonprofit agencies, civic organizations, educational and cultural institutions, mass communications, and the private sector. Executive Sponsors include city, state,and federal commissioners; judges; museum curators; directors of civic organizations; business executives; directors of community-based programs; administrators of programs in the performing arts; newspaper editors and publishers; and radio and television producers. Executive Interns attend policy meetings and conferences with their sponsors, follow up on special assignments, prepare memoranda and reports, and occasionally even travel with their sponsors.

Interns are with their individual sponsors four days a week during regular business hours. On Fridays, all of the interns meet as a group for seminars on executive behavior and organizational analysis, in which they discuss readings, meet with officials, make site visits to programs in operation,and often make their own presentations. The program combines classroom analysis with actual experience in the world of executives and organizations. Although Interns receive no pay for their semester's work, they do receive a full semester of academic credit for participation in the program. Each year EHSIP enrolls approximately 3,000 students, with a program dropout rate below 1%.

Participant assessments of the Internship experience appear to be generally positive, although no systematic evaluation of either outcomes or participant attitudes toward the program is presently available. (NIE is currently funding a nation-wide evaluation of the program.)

According to proponents of the program, however, students gain from the experience in several ways:

1. Opportunities for career exploration. "(The program) gave me an opportunity to experience and analyze the profession I plan to pursue," states one enthusiastic participant.
2. Increased confidence in one's ability to function well in responsible positions.
3. Employment opportunities following participation in the program (Hirsh, 1974).

THE VIRGINIA PROGRAM: Since 1970, Virginia colleges and universities have jointly participated in efforts to provide opportunities for their students to work in public service as a part of their total education.* The administrative agency for this cooperative effort is The Virginia Program. The components of The Virginia Program are the Virginia Off-Campus College Work-Study Program and the Virginia Internship Program. Programs are administered under one of these two titles, depending on the objective of the particular program.

The Virginia Internship Program was initiated in 1970 by the State Council of Higher Education for Virginia with a mandate to promote, through a variety of means, opportunities for students to work in the public interest as a recognized part of their educational program.

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* The following description is reproduced, in large part, from Cooperation in Service and Learning, A Report of The Virginia Program for September 1, 1975 - August 31, 1976, Petersburg, VA: October 1976.

With this mandate, the Virginia Internship Program has been involved in a variety of activities, including providing internships for students with state government agencies and providing technical assistance and fiscal support to institutions and agencies in developing their own internship programs.

The objectives of the Program are to provide opportunities for students in public service employment in order to:

1. generate income to help defray the cost of continuing their education;
2. develop work-related skills and competencies;
3. preview and explore vocational interests;
4. provide meaningful service to citizens of Virginia; and
5. have access to knowledge generally unavailable in the campus setting and apply classroom learning in real life situations.

Student participants in the Program have reported that their work experience has been invaluable in their career development by:

1. providing information about career opportunities in particular service occupations;
2. aiding their development of work-related skills and competencies; and
3. establishing contacts with professionals employed in particular service occupations and public agencies.

During the summer of 1976, the Program provided eleven weeks of public service employment for 100 rising seniors and Spring 1976 graduates from twenty-three Virginia colleges and universities with the objective of helping these students prepare to enter the work force. Students participating in the Program had pursued academic programs appropriate to certain occupations (e.g., sociology and corrections, psychology and mental health) but had not acquired work experience in these occupations. These students were employed by the Virginia Departments of Corrections, Health, Mental Health and Mental Retardation, and Welfare in activities of these departments across the Commonwealth. Compensation for these students was provided from a grant under CETA.

The Program also sponsored the Virginia Legislative Internship Program in which students worked as administrative assistants during the 1976 Session of the Virginia General Assembly with members of the Assembly, state agencies, citizen groups, and trade associations. A total of fifty-one students served as interns during the 1976 Session.

From the inception of the Program, student participants have reported receiving a variety of benefits from their work experience in addition to monetary compensation. Evaluations were made during or immediately following the work experience. The long-range value of the work experience has not been studied. In 1975-76, the Program conducted a study to determine how former participants evaluated their work experience after graduation and entrance into the work force. The study was concerned with identifying the benefits that accrued to students from their work experience, the extent to which these benefits occurred, and the conditions that tend to provide particular benefits. Responses to a questionnaire were solicited from 815 former participants who completed a four-year undergraduate program. Responses were received from 412 former participants (50.6 percent).

An analysis of responses indicated that the work experience was valuable in three areas:

1. aiding the student's personal growth and development;
2. providing information about vocational possibilities; and
3. securing permanent employment.

Respondents cited the most benefits in their ability to respond to different kinds of people, in a better understanding of public agencies, and in increased ability to work well and communicate effectively with others.

Based on these data, the 1975-76 Report of The Virginia Program concludes:

> The debate now occuring in American higher education between liberal learning and vocationalism (liberal learning focusing on course work in academic disciplines, vocationalism focusing on practical knowledge as a technical base for particular vocations and professions) is an artificial debate...the objectives of both liberal learning and vocationalism can be jointly pursued through work-learning programs.

THE GEORGIA GOVERNOR'S INTERN PROGRAM: The Georgia Governor's Intern Program provides college students an opportunity to combine academic studies with internships in the executive branch of state government, state and local agencies, the legislature, and public and private non-profit organizations.*

From its establishment in 1971, the Program has become a major educational activity in the State of Georgia. College students have benefited from alternative learning opportunities while performing public service. Colleges have re-examined their curricula as they sought to offer credit for off-campus education. Likewise, public and private agencies have responded by designing and funding projects for student interns.

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* This description is taken from Education, Service and Work, Federal Interagency Committee on Education, Sub-Committee on Education and Work, 1977.

The program was sanctioned by the Board of Regents of the University System of Georgia in 1972. In their statement of policy, the Board of Regents stated:

> The intern program offers students an opportunity to address real life problems under the supervision of professionals in the problem areas and under the guidance of faculty members. It has the potential of providing students with educational experiences different from, but no less valuable than those encountered in the classroom.

The intern program now operates year-round, with students participating during each academic quarter. Students from a variety of academic majors representing colleges in Georgia and around the nation have participated in the Governor's Intern Program. Most of the interns have received academic credit. The benefits of student involvement and input have reached nearly all public agencies throughout Georgia.

The specific objectives of the program are as follows:

1. to broaden the scope of undergraduate and graduate curricula by offering students a unique type of learning experience -- the academic internship;
2. to give assistance, through the work of interns, to public agencies expressing service needs in the form of special projects (Intern projects stress the completion of specific tasks and the attainment of knowledge and skills.);
3. to provide constructive service opportunities for students seeking to participate in efforts toward solving problems facing all the citizens of Georgia;

4. to make the resources of the colleges and universities more accessible to the community (This provides a means for keeping curricula, teaching, and research relevant to the needs of society.); and

5. to encourage students to evaluate career goals, consider citizen leadership in public programs, and acquaint sponsoring agencies with possible candidates for future employment.

During 1976, a total of 384 students participated in the intern program, the largest number of participants in its history. Internships were split equally between men and women, and approximately one-third of the participants were members of minority groups. The program experienced a 100 percent completion rate (no dropouts). An attempt is now being made to follow up on former interns to determine whether the program has had an effect in steering participants into public employment or related work.

UNIVERSITY OF KENTUCKY OFFICE FOR EXPERIENTIAL EDUCATION*: In an effort to demonstrate the effectiveness of experiential education to traditional liberal arts faculty, the University of Kentucky Office for Experiential Education has developed an experiential program exploring the ethics and values of decision making in the public sector. The program has been developed on the premise that a central objective of liberal arts instruction is to develop citizens who base their decisions on a soundly developed ethical philosophy. It is suggested that traditional instruction in liberal arts (interaction with faculty through lectures, reading materials, and discussions) may not always be the most effective means of instruction; many students may not be able to grasp general ethical concepts from their limited base of experience. Consequently, the program places students in public agencies, so that they can analyze, among other things, the values inherent in the decision making process.

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* The following description is taken from Robert F. Sexton, "Experiential Education and Community Involvement Practices at the Postsecondary Level: Implications for Career Education," November 1, 1976.

Each student in the program undertakes a one semester internship in a public agency of his/her choice. Activities include working with local planning boards, city council members, and social service agencies. Concurrent with the internships, all students participate in a broadly conceived, humanistic seminar taught by a team of faculty members drawn from the fields of political science, philosophy, and educational psychology. In this seminar, students are expected to draw upon observations from their work for discussion and to reach conclusions about the implications of the activities they have observed. The program relies heavily on personal development as an aim of education and consequently uses evaluative processes designed to assess developmental changes in the students during the course of a semester.

The program is related to the career and personal objectives of some students and to the academic aspirations of others. For example, for students in professional fields such as architecture or social work, the internship provides the necessary preprofessional experience, while the reflective component provides an interesting excursion into liberal arts. Students in the fields of philosophy, sociology, or English also participate in the program; for them, the internship provides an exposure to an occupational field, while the primary objective is to satisfy their interests in the ethical questions. It is assumed that preparation for careers, if approached narrowly, is not the sole purpose of the educational institution. The preparation for careers defined broadly, involving an interaction of job and work and leisure time and commitment to community, is the ultimate purpose of the institution.

VOLUNTEER/SERVICE AGENCIES AND ORGANIZATIONS

ACTION

In 1961, the Congress created the first government volunteer agency to administer the Peace Corps; in 1965, Volunteers in Service to America (VISTA) was created as a domestic counterpart to the Peace Corps. Finally, in 1971, all the government-sponsored volunteer programs were brought together under the aegis of one agency, ACTION. Since then, the agency's programs have increased both in size and scope. In addition to the two programs cited above, those with particular emphasis on youth include the Youth Challenge Program, the University Year for ACTION, and the Program for Local Service.

The Youth Challenge Program provides young people with the opportunity to serve low-income communities on a regular part-time basis. A 1976 evaluation of the program described, among other factors, the potential benefits to volunteers, service agencies, educational institutions,and the community in general (ACTION, 1976). The most frequently reported benefit of program participation to the volunteers (most of whom were between the ages of 14-21) was academic credit from participating educational institutions. Other benefits cited included summer jobs, job references,and self-satisfaction. Almost 44% of the volunteers indicated that, for them, the most valuable aspect of the program was the chance to learn how to work with people and to communicate with various groups. Other valuable gains mentioned were self-growth, career skills, and career exploration opportunities. The report maintained that the most successful projects were those which focused on benefits for volunteers first and community service second and which were located in school districts already providing career education or work-study and exploring wider opportunities for service-learning as part of the curriculum (ACTION, 1976).

The University Year for ACTION (UYA) program, established in 1971, provides a year's academic credit and a subsistence allowance to full-time students working in poverty areas. The students serve as full-time volunteers for local organizations which define the job and supervise the volunteer's work. A 1975 evaluation found that "the UYA experience has a major impact on the volunteer, strongly influencing career choice and development, and stimulating intellectual growth" (Sansbury, 1975, p.2). Based on a survey of former UYA volunteers, it was found that one third continued to engage in volunteer work; 63% felt they had learned more practical skills during their UYA experience than in the academic year prior to their participation; and 89% stated that their attitude toward learning had been influenced positively. Ninety-seven percent indicated that their UYA participation had a significant or moderate degree of influence on their career choice (Sansbury, 1975).

In 1973, ACTION initiated the Program for Local Service in King County, Washington. Over 300 youth between the ages of 18-25 worked full-time on high-priority social problems identified by local organizations which served as sponsors. The participants were encouraged to negotiate assignments directly with potential sponsoring agencies. The value of the services performed by PLS was estimated by the sponsors at $2,150,000, twice the amount awarded by ACTION to fund the program (Eberly, 1976).

Based on the success of the demonstration program, ten separate replication models were developed across the country. An evaluation, Applying PLS through CETA: A Summary of Programs and Models, measured the impact on volunteers of 10 Program for Local Service projects in eight states. This 1975 study determined that the various projects of the Program for Local Service had the following common features:

- Programs were conducted locally with participants recruited from the local area.
- There was a universal opportunity for service; everyone who met program requirements had an equal opportunity to participate.
- Placement was non-directive; insofar as they were consistent with program regulations, the decisions of participants and the sponsors with which they served as to placement and work responsibilities were respected.
- Volunteer service was accompanied by living allowances; each participant received cash payments and benefits sufficient to permit a year of full-time service without other sources of income.
- Other costs were minimal; high proportions (typically over 90%) of PLS operating budgets went directly to participant benefits.
- Sponsor agencies participated in the cost of the program; the agencies and organizations in which the volunteers served contributed a cash payment in support of the cost of the program as well as in-kind training, workspace, transportation allowances, etc.

Data from the first of three Washington State projects in which 18 to 25 year olds participated indicated that 71.1% of the 372 PLS applicants who were placed with sponsors were unemployed at the time of application. Six to eight months after separation from the program, a survey of 263 of the 372 participants indicated that 40% were employed full-time, 12% were employed part-time, and 12% were full-time students. Almost 18% were not in the job market and 18% were unemployed and seeking work.

In general, PLS volunteers in the first demonstration project regarded the program as very closely connected to their career plans or hopes. Eight months into service, over two-thirds reported that the program had already "influenced their career and educational plans." At enrollment, one-third of the volunteers answered "don't know" to the question, "What will you do after PLS?"; eight months into service only 6.4% still did not know, while the number expecting to find a job or return to college had increased.

The study also sought to measure impact in terms of the participants' future educational plans, value of the program to future employment, and occupation related topics such as motivation, understanding of organization, career exploration, and development of specific skills and competencies. Among the significant impacts found were the following:

- career plans generally tended to gel during the year of service;
- many volunteers changed educational plans or planned to return to school;
- volunteers perceived PLS service as an extremely valuable experience for future employment;
- the opportunity "to try different types of jobs" was very important to a plurality of participants;
- participants considered the status of their current employment(as volunteers) significantly "higher" that it would have been had they not been in the program; and
- participants developed increased awareness of human needs (ACTION, 1975b).

Although the studies detailed above provide useful data on the impact of the various ACTION programs on participants, there are few evaluations that address longitudinal programmatic effects on volunteers. This results from ACTION's mission and its primary focus upon the delivery of volunteer services to various disadvantaged groups. Facilitating the volunteer's transition to the world of work is not a major ACTION objective. In contrast, many programs conducted by the Department of Labor have focused upon the impact of the program on the participants and have tended to pay less attention to the value of the work being performed by program enrollees.

These differing foci make comparative evaluation of programmatic effects difficult. A possible solution to the dilemma would be the development of a common set of evaluative criteria that measures the benefits of a program in terms of both the impact upon participants and the value to society of the tasks performed by them.

Volunteer/Service Organizations

According to a 1974 Census Bureau Survey commissioned by ACTION, one out of four Americans does some volunteer work. Nearly 37 million people volunteered an average of nine hours a week, the equivalent of 3,500,000 people working full-time for one year. Twenty-two percent of teenagers from 14 to 17 years old volunteered, while 18% of youth aged 18 to 24 did some volunteer work (ACTION, 1975a). Many of these young people participate through school youth groups and voluntary organizations which are increasingly involved in career education and the school-to-work transition. Both the school-affiliated groups and the community-based voluntary organizations supplement classroom learning by providing hands-on experience through learning-by-doing programs and actual work experiences. They provide for direct contacts between youth and community actors and offer opportunities for young people to observe various career areas and receive occupational information in specific areas of interest. The voluntary organizations fulfill an additional vital role by offering participation in these areas to out-of-school youth as well.

Some of the school groups designed specifically to help prepare students for careers are the Distributive Education Clubs of America (DECA), Future Business Leaders of America (FBLA), Future Farmers of America (FFA), Future Homemakers of America (FHA), Office Education Association (OEA), and Vocational Industrial Clubs of America (VICA). These groups offer a variety of career programs, implemented by local chapter personnel.

Because many of the voluntary organizations have been providing school-to-work transition programs for some time, we determined that a more detailed description of some of these efforts was warranted.* Although few evaluations of these activities were available, we have included those which were most relevant to our study.

BOYS CLUBS OF AMERICA: Individual local chapters can elect to participate in a "Building Employment Skills Today" and a "World of Work" program which is open to boys and girls aged 14-18. The locally developed delivery system provides for recruitment, vocational counseling and career exploration, placement, follow-up,and supportive services. By participating in this program, youth have an opportunity to:

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* These descriptions are based on materials provided by Larry Brown, National 4-H Council, Washington, D.C.

- participate in group interaction
- learn reasons for working, now and in the future
- decide what kind of work is best for them
- learn how to fill out job applications
- develop job interview skills
- learn about job adjustment and behavior
- experience the importance of good communications
- learn about fringe benefits and employee rights
- find out about local job openings and transportation

EXPLORING/BOY SCOUTS OF AMERICA: Exploring brings young men and women voluntarily into association with adults who, by the example of their character, citizenship traits, and knowledge, provide a positive force in the lives of young adults. Explorer posts are formed to help young people investigate specific career areas such as aviation, law, health,and sea exploration under the guidance of business, associations, trades,and institutional sponsorships. The following program is representative of the training provided:

Typical Law Explorer Post Program

Explorer methods of operation are self-motivated, mature, and democratic. The activities are selected, planned, and conducted by the Explorers within the framework of the sponsor's resources and member interest. Techniques used in conducting this program include role playing, simulation games,and debate.

Examples of subjects included in a Law Explorer Post Program include:

- function of the Court of Common Pleas
- no-fault insurance
- operation of the district attorney's office

- investigation of a criminal case and trial
- presentation by the state attorney general
- trial of case by Moot Court
- trip to Washington, D.C. -- observation of Congress, Supreme Court,and F.B.I.
- mock trial involving all members
- trip to state capitol -- observation of state senate, state legislature, and Appellate Courts
- military law
- the Bill of Rights (movie and discussion)
- law day luncheon (guests of the county bar association)
- trip to university law school
- the Bill of Rights (role playing, debate)
- environmental law and policy
- ecology service projects

4-H CLUBS: The primary aim of the 4-H program in the area of economics, jobs,and careers is to develop a young person's capability to manage, with minimum help, his or her own occupational and educational development, and to provide opportunities for youth to:

- perfect their skill in project-related areas;
- engage in volunteer work in a wide range of community and human service situations;
- cooperate with local businesses, industries,and institutions in a program of work sampling; and
- take part in job and career exploration and pre-employment training.

In 1973, the Michigan 4-H program established a 4-H Community Center in Detroit and commissioned the Michigan State University Center for Urban Affairs to evaluate the effectiveness of the program. Of particular interest is the impact evaluation which measured changes in the community including:

1. the effect 4-H and the 4-H Community Center had upon the community;

2. the effect 4-H had upon the family life of those involved in the program;

3. the effect of the 4-H program on the behavior of youth involved in the program;

4. the effect on the social network of youth involved in the program;

5. the extent to which volunteers were used in the program; and

6. the effect of 4-H involvement on youth selection of and preference for role models.

Findings, with regard to the impact evaluation, included the following:

1. Youth involved with this program:

    a. exhibited less asocial behavior than youth not involved with this program;

    b. had a significant reduction in juvenile offenses;

    c. had parents who perceived a positive change in their children's choice of friends.

2. The 4-H program seemed to have its greatest impact upon teenage boys.

3. Involvement with this program caused:

    a. the friendship networks of youth to change significantly, with members identifying most of their friends as fellow 4-H members;

    b. the number of their friends who engaged in asocial behavior to decline significantly after the youth joined the 4-H program.

4. The program has been shown to be highly attractive to adults in the community. Many of the adult volunteers working with youth did not have children of their own involved in the program.

5. 4-H members looked to 4-H leaders and other adults as their models for behavior.

GIRL SCOUTS OF THE U.S.A.: The Girl Scouts received a grant from the U.S. Office of Career Education to develop a career awareness project for adolescent girls. The project, entitled "From Dreams to Reality," emphasizes the following objectives:

- to display a large number of female role models in a wide range of careers;
- to encourage/stimulate career decision-making behaviors and expand a sense of self-awareness;
- to provide career exploration activities as well as encouraging "hands-on" on-site experience; and
- to stimulate non-stereotypic thinking and creative approaches to careers.

The project will seek to expand the career potential of women. Girls will be given the opportunity to view the many careers they can choose from, so that they may become aware of options they might never have considered.

In planning for the future, young women often see only a very limited number of career models: housewife, teacher, nurse, librarian, or secretary. This project intends to expand the scope of career choice for adolescent girls by providing them with 160 different female career models and with the idea that a girl can expand her own thinking to include all the careers that exist.

The program includes a practicum aspect, where young people can acquire paid and unpaid experience in local business and industry, as they try out a variety of career roles. For younger Scouts, the program would include field trips, guest speakers, and activities that would expand a younger person's awareness of available options. Sex stereotyping would be discussed, in order for young women to become more aware of the choices they actually have, and for them to meet the challenge of using their options as fully as possible.

GIRLS CLUBS OF AMERICA: The JIFFY Program which started in Memphis, Tennessee, and is now expanding to other locations, provides girls 14-18 with the following:

- Career opportunities and education: Young women are helped to explore a wide range of job vistas and specific career areas. Advanced education programs are also offered, so that they may become familiar with school campuses and learn about financial assistance programs.
- Job preparation: Workshops include obtaining a social security card, looking for a job, employer expectations, tips on taking tests, and other topics. Young women are given a battery of tests to assess interests and aptitudes.
- Community and cultural activities: Participation in community activities provides additional opportunities for the participants to test themselves and enhance their feelings of community pride and self-esteem.
- Job practicum: Practical on-the-job experience is an integral part of the program, although the participants are not paid by their employers. They practice job-seeking skills, including filling out forms, making phone calls, taking tests and interviews. On the job they are treated as ordinary employees. If

a practicum fails, the young women are offered a second work experience and special help so that a pattern of failure is not established.

- Follow-up: Counseling and referral services are offered on an individual basis. Special efforts are made to reach those who have dropped out of school or are about to, who are unemployed or underemployed, or who wish to continue their education.

AMERICAN NATIONAL RED CROSS: The American National Red Cross, through Youth Service Programs, provides the opportunity for youth of any age to study and explore career potentials by:

- Working with schools and community youth groups to help them develop career day or career week programs.
- Providing individual young people in schools and community youth groups the opportunity to explore careers by actively doing related career tasks as volunteers.
- Providing young people, through involvement in the volunteer process, with experience in completing applications, being interviewed, making decisions regarding community assignments, receiving task/skill oriented training, working prescribed hours, and being evaluated on their performance.
- Providing exposure to professionals in a wide variety of career fields.

- Providing counseling with regard to future volunteer assignments, post high school training/schooling, and career possibilities.

YOUNG WOMEN'S CHRISTIAN ASSOCIATION OF THE U.S.A.: In the summer of 1967, the YWCA implemented a demonstration project for the U.S. Department of Labor. The Summer Youth Demonstration Project used the resources of the YWCA and its affiliate branches to plan, develop, and implement and evaluate enriched programs of work experience and employability services to disadvantaged youth and to gauge the feasibility and identify the values and problems of such a program for possible future efforts of this nature by this and other such organizations. Major goals were to encourage returning to school, promote enrollment in the Neighborhood Youth Corps or other manpower programs, or prepare participants for stable, gainful employment.

Demonstration projects, including 357 disadvantaged, out-of-school, out-of-work 16-19 year old young women, were carried out in six cities: Atlanta, Georgia; Cleveland, Ohio; Washington, D.C.; Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania; St. Louis, Missouri; and Tacoma, Washington. These young women were provided with:

- an orientation to the world of work;
- paid, supervised work experience at the YWCA or at a cooperating non-profit organization;
- supportive services including:
    - counseling and guidance
    - remedial education

  - individualized, personal development services
  - health examinations and health counseling
  - follow-up services
  - clothing and transportation financing
- job development and placement.

Program outcomes were as follows; Of the 357 young women:

- 100 returned to school full-time
- 35 returned to school part-time
- 123 were referred to NYC or other training
- 56 were employed
- 29 were unemployed.

The brief descriptions outlined above provide an indication of the wide variety of school-to-work efforts sponsored by many volunteer/service organizations. It is likely that hundreds of similar programs are being offered on the local level, arguing for a closer look at the range and quality of these efforts.

SECTION 2
EMPLOYMENT AND TRAINING

Neighborhood Youth Corps

Seeking to address the social and economic problems of youth in poverty areas, the Congress enacted a work and training program for youth as part of the Economic Opportunity Act of 1964*. The purpose of this legislation was to provide "useful work and training opportunities" to assist low-income youth to remain in school or resume their education. Similar work and training opportunities were to be provided to help unemployed or low-income youth (out of school) to obtain and hold regular competitive employment. The legislation mandated the provision of experience and training programs for low-income youngsters in school and out of school. The programs for in-school youngsters were also intended to provide financial assistance.

As a result of this legislation, the Department of Labor established the Neighborhood Youth Corps (NYC). Although the program no longer exists as a national effort, it is available to local communities as an option under CETA. The NYC program had three major components -- in-school, summer, and out-of-school programs. The NYC In-School Program was designed to provide part-time jobs (from 8 to 15 hours a week) to youth from low-income families. The purpose of this program was to keep potential dropouts in school and encourage dropouts to return to school. Participants earned the minimum wage and were provided with such supportive services as remedial education and counseling. To be eligible for the In-School Program, applicants had to be in the 9th through 12th grade and from a low-income family.

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* The program description which follows is taken, in large part, from Robert S. Smith and Hugh M. Pitcher, The Neighborhood Youth Corps: An Impact Evaluation, Technical Analysis Paper No. 9, DOL, September 1973.

The NYC Summer Program provided summer job opportunities for youth from low-income families. The objectives of the Summer Program were similar to those of the In-School Program in that enrollees were encouraged to stay in school or return to school in the fall. Participants in the In-School Program were given priority for inclusion in the Summer Program. Enrollees usually worked 26 hours a week for 9 weeks and earned at least the minimum wage.

The third NYC component was the Out-of-School Program. This program had as its objective to increase the employability of unemployed, low-income youth who were not in school. In addition to providing work experience, the NYC Out-of-School Program provided counseling, remedial education and occupational exploration. The Out-of-School Program was divided into two segments -- NYC-1 and NYC-2. The NYC-1 Program was located primarily in rural areas and small communities and emphasized work experience and needed supportive services. The NYC-2 Program focused on youth in urban and high unemployment areas and emphasized training, career orientation, counseling, cultural enrichment,and other supportive services. Work experience was limited to a maximum of one-third of the participants' time. Enrollees in the Out-of-School Program were mainly between the ages of 16 and 17 and remained in the program a maximum of 2 years.

They spent no more than 40 hours a week in the project and were paid the legal minimum wage.

According to Brown et al (1972), the goals of NYC, both explicit and implicit, can be summarized as follows: (a) to redistribute income to the poor, (b) to increase the employment of youth, (c) to reduce teen-age-related crime,and (d) to increase the lifetime earnings of enrollees through training, incentives to stay in school,and work experience.

In the following pages, we present the conclusions of the important studies of the Neighborhood Youth Corps conducted during this period, with particular emphasis on those findings which relate to the school-to-work transition.

A Longitudinal Study of Selected Out of School NYC-2 Programs in Four Cities, Final Report, by Regis H. Walther and Margaret L. Magnusson, Manpower Research Project, The George Washington University, Washington, D.C., June 1975.

Nature of Study

> The study sought to investigate the effectiveness of out-of-school employability of enrollees. In 1970, when the study was undertaken, the NYC had just been redesigned to place more emphasis on education, skill training,and supportive services, to put less emphasis on work experience,and to concentrate on 16-and 17-year-old dropouts. One purpose of the research was to compare the new design (NYC-2) with the old (NYC-1). A sample of 502 entering NYC enrollees was selected from programs in four cities: Atlanta, Georgia; Baltimore, Maryland; Cincinnati, Ohio; and St. Louis, Missouri. Information was obtained at the time of enrollment, at monthly intervals while still enrolled, at time of termination, four months after termination,and over one year after termination. Interviews and questionnaires were used to gather information. A control

group was selected in Cincinnati that was the same size as the study group, i.e. 125. NYC-2 data were compared with NYC-1 data in Cincinnati and St. Louis where longitudinal data had been collected during the existence of the NYC-1 out-of-school programs.

Findings

The researchers found that the redesigned NYC-2 program, which included a combination of services including counseling and testing, remedial education, assistance in re-enrolling in school, skill training, and work experience, was no more effective than NYC-1 in enhancing the employability of participants. The data indicated that job development and placement, skill training, and provision of more employment opportunities at worksites were effective means of increasing employability. Nevertheless, even if the training and placement resources of each of the site programs had been greatly expanded, it is doubtful whether the employment outcomes would have been improved dramatically, because a large proportion of the study subjects did not take advantage of the resources which were available to them.

In the authors' view, the limitation of NYC-2 programs to 16-and 17-year-olds was a major flaw in program design, because it resulted in very high concentrations of poorly motivated and low-achieving trainees in each site. In such circumstances, failure, rather than success, tended to become the norm of the training groups. The site programs were thus lacking in both success models and a program atmosphere that would reinforce desirable work-related behaviors.

Black Teenage Girl Project, In-School Neighborhood Youth Corps, Memphis,Tennessee, Final Report by Andrew Fox, W. Theodore May and Paul L. Schwartz, Social Service Delivery Systems, December 31, 1973.

Nature of Study

A specially designed work program was offered to 14/15-year-old black teenage girls, which provided them with support in their work settings, well-defined tasks, supervisors,and regularly scheduled peer interaction groups led by a young black woman considered to be an appropriate role model. The experimental group was given work assignments as assistants to teachers and leaders in after-school day care centers. They were directed by job-supervisors in each center and participated in regular discussion groups.

The study was based on the hypothesis that positive outcomes would result if 14/15-year-old girls were involved in a work program two years earlier than is usual for NYC and were supported by peer interaction groups led by effective black female role models.

Two kinds of data were collected and analyzed: (1) personality assessment data on the experimental and two control groups; (2) external source data - school grades, attendance, court contacts, pregnancies, and on-job performance evaluations. The older controls were a group of 16/18 year old black female In-School NYC youths; the younger controls were a group of 14/15-year-old black girls from the same population as the experimental group who didn't participate in work activities or in peer support groups. All three groups were tested, studied, and evaluated over a 9-month period from November 1972 to August 1973.

Findings

The most generally consistent finding of this study is that the experimental group and the older working control group maintained their levels of functioning. This maintenance outcome was most noticeable in school grades, good self concepts, and the individuals' sense of control of their own destinies, as opposed to feeling at the mercy of fate, chance or luck. By contrast, the younger control group and those who dropped out of the program (particularly the younger ones) diminished in their levels of functioning in the same areas.

The positive outcomes for the experimental group become significant when contrasted with the changes in a negative direction found among the younger controls. Similar negative changes also characterized the leavers from the program. The findings thus suggest that the project had a substantial impact.

In brief then, the placement of 14/15-year-old black adolescent girls in a youth employment program, supported by peer interaction groups, produced positive outcomes for those included in the program. At the same time, those who were not included in the program (or who dropped out) showed negative changes in school grades and self concepts, as well as an increased perception of themselves as being at the mercy of chance or luck rather than controlling their own destinies.

The Neighborhood Youth Corps: An Impact Evaluation, by Robert S. Smith and Hugh M. Pitcher, Technical Analysis Paper No. 9, Office of Evaluation, OASPER, DOL, September 1973.

Nature of Study

This evaluation undertook to analyze the effects of NYC with respect to the attainment of four goals: (1) redistribution of income to the poor; (2) increase in employment of youth; (3) reduction of teenage-related crime; and (4) increase in lifetime earnings of enrollees through training, incentives to stay in school,and work experience.

Findings

The NYC Program is essentially redistributive in that income is transferred from middle- and upper-income groups to the poor. The Summer Program appears to be slightly more redistributive than the In-School Program, at least in the short run.

Evidence on the employment effects of NYC is not at all conclusive or credible. At this point, there is insufficient data with which to evaluate changes in teenage employment which may have occurred as a result of NYC.

The effects of NYC on teenage crime rates are essentially unknown and, with data currently available, unknowable. The evidence on this goal to date is very tentative and speculative.

Evidence with respect to the long-run impact of NYC on earnings is likewise unconvincing. The estimated effects on earnings alternate between rates of return which may be inordinately high and rates of return which are zero. Evidence with respect to educational attainment is likewise conflicting. The researchers therefore conclude that the long-run effects of NYC are also unknown; as with the shorter-run impacts, more conclusive evaluative efforts await the development and exploitation of better data.

A Study of the Effectiveness of Selected Out-of-School Neighborhood Youth Corps Programs: Implications for Program Operations and Research, February 1969, and A Study of the Effectiveness of Selected Out-of-School Neighborhood Youth Corps Programs (A Study of Selected NYC-1 Projects), by Regis H. Walther, Project Director; Margaret L. Magnusson, Research Associate, Social Research Group, The George Washington University, Washington, D.C., April 1971.

Nature of Study

This study of selected urban out-of-school NYC programs was undertaken to investigate the extent to which these programs enhanced the employability of enrollees and to determine elements of effective program operations. The study had three data collection components:

1. An interview survey of former NYC enrollees and controls was conducted in Cincinnati, Ohio; Durham, North Carolina; East St. Louis, Illinois; and St. Louis, Missouri. During this retrospective study, persons who had been program enrollees in 1965-66 and controls were first interviewed in the winter and spring of 1967 and interviewed again the summer of 1968.
2. A study group of entering enrollees was selected for interviewing at the four sites, and information concerning their NYC experience was collected during the course of their enrollment.
3. A study of enrollees terminating from two Pittsburgh programs and the Cincinnati program in the last half of 1966 followed up enrollees through mailed self-report questionnaires.

Findings

Although there was no clear evidence that the NYC effectively enhanced the employability of the average enrollee, there was evidence that some program components were having a significant effect. Formal skill training, work sites with training and employment opportunities, job development, and job placement assistance appeared to be associated with increased post-NYC employment.

The attitudes of enrollees were associated with their employability. In the study of work-relevant attitudes, it was found that attitudinal questions differentiated on the basis of sex, race, and school status, with the largest proportion of the variance associated with school status.

The continuation of program counseling responsibility into the post-NYC period improved the employment adjustment of former enrollees.

NYC enrollment policy that concentrated on "hard core" youth tended to limit program effectiveness.

A Cost Effectiveness Study of the In-School and Summer Neighborhood Youth Corps, by Gerald G. Somers, Project Director; Ernst W. Stromsdorfer, Principal Investigator; Center for Studies in Vocational and Technical Education, Industrial Relations Research Institute, The University of Wisconsin, Madison, Wisconsin, July 1970.

Nature of Study

The study investigated the impact of the NYC In-School and Summer Programs primarily on: (1) enrollee dropout rates and (2) enrollee earnings and employment experiences after leaving high school. A geographically distributed interview survey selected a total study sample of 436 NYC enrollees at 60 in-school and summer programs through a random process. A control group of 344 individuals was also selected for comparison. To increase response rates, mail questionnaires and telephone contacts were used when personal interviews were impossible. The survey gathered work-related, demographic, attitudinal, and financial data from the study and control groups while also collecting data on the NYC experiences of the study group.

Findings

Overall, NYC-2 did not significantly increase high school graduation rates among children of low-income families. Nevertheless, the graduation probabilities for certain sub groups, most notably blacks, were enhanced. Relative to the control groups, NYC high school graduates had an increased probability of obtaining further education.

By whetting the appetites of enrollees for full-time jobs and larger incomes, an NYC job may have encouraged some to drop out of high school at the same time as it permitted and motivated others to continue their education. The improved attitudes toward work reported by the NYC participants and the actual evidence of labor market benefits may have facilitated the transition from school to work for some even before their graduation.

The authors believed that intensive counseling was needed. The NYC students' high school jobs would serve to further their education only if they were convinced that an even better job awaited them after additional years of schooling. Without inculcation of such beliefs, the mere provision of a job under the NYC might have negative as well as positive effects on the educational plans of teenagers from low-income families.

Regardless of the objective facts of their NYC work and their post-high school employment, the NYC participants evaluated their experience in the most enthusiastic terms. They were highly satisfied with the kind of work assigned to them, their hourly rates, and their supervisors.

Survey of Terminees from Out-of-School Neighborhood Youth Corps Projects, Final Report prepared by Dunlap and Associates, Inc., Darien, Connecticut, June 1968.

Nature of Study

The study sought to determine the extent to which former NYC out-of-school program enrollees were successful in obtaining and holding gainful employment or engaged in skills training or educational pursuits related to gainful employment. At 50 sites, an interview survey of 601 rural and 1,425 urban NYC out-of-school program terminees was conducted to gather data on postprogram activity. A control group of 507 was selected and interviewed for comparison. This study is similar in scope and objectives to one conducted during the previous year (1966-67). The earlier study did not include a control group. All three samples were compared.

Findings

While the study presents numerous analytic results that give a statistical profile of the post enrollment experiences of NYC out-of-school participants, as well as the experiences of the control group, no rigorous comparison of participants to controls was made to adequately determine program impact.

THE VOCATIONAL EXPLORATION IN THE PRIVATE SECTOR PROGRAM: The U.S. Department of Labor, the National Alliance of Businessmen (NAB), and the Office of Education of HEW cooperated in the development and demonstration of a full-year pilot program "Vocational Exploration in the Private Sector" (VEPS) for Neighborhood Youth Corps in-school youth. The time frame of the experimental program was June 1, 1971, to June 30, 1972.

VEPS program goals were to:

- reduce high school dropout rates;
- reduce the flow of untrained, unskilled youth into the labor market; and
- provide enrollees with the widest possible exposure to the world of work.

VEPS program objectives for youth participants were:

- To provide youth with incentive to remain in school and earn a high school diploma. The incentive to remain in school was to be provided by intensive counseling, remediation, and work experience components that would demonstrate the need for and value of education.
- To facilitate the smooth transition upon high school graduation into the full-time work force. Utilizing private sector work sites with three separate work experiences, coupled with career exploration, the VEPS program sought to provide a broader and more transferable NYC work experience by using private rather than public sector work sites.
- To provide youth with part-time employment while in school. A major objective of VEPS-1 was for employers to continue employing enrollees on a full-time basis during the summer following the initial program year and on a part-time basis during the enrollees' high school senior year. Upon graduation, it was hoped that the enrollees would be employed by the participating company as a regular full-time employee or by another employer seeking labor skills possessed by the enrollees.

- To dramatize the need for and utility of a sound high school education for success in the world of work. Through example, experience,and counseling, it was hoped that enrollees could draw linkages between the opportunities provided through formal education and the requirements for employability in the private sector.

The VEPS program operated in ten cities, two of which terminated the program after the first 12-week summer phase. The full-year VEPS program had three segments (summer, first school semester, and second school semester), each of which had an "NYC Phase" and and "Employer Phase." During the "NYC Phase," enrollees received wages paid from NYC sponsor funds. During the "Employer Phase," wages were paid entirely by the private sector employer.

At the start of each segment, the enrollee was to move to a new work station either at his present employer or with another employer. At the conclusion of the program each enrollee was to have had three separate VEPS work experiences.

The major components of VEPS were: counseling and remediation, orientation, career exploration, non-productive on-the-job training, and productive work experience. The first four components were conducted during the "NYC Phase." The fifth component defined the "Employer Phase."

Youth participants in the VEPS program were recruited by NYC sponsors; potential enrollees were in-school youth at least 16 years of age who were economically disadvantaged as defined by NYC guidelines. Candidates were referred to special high school counselors for certification that the students would be 11th graders in

September 1971, and that they were "probable dropouts."

Work sites for enrollees were to be identified and selected by NAB metro offices. Criteria for participating private sector companies included a demonstrated interest in training and employing in-school youth and a capability for training youth personnel. As conditions for participation in the program, a company was to agree to:

1. provide, at its own cost, necessary staff, space, equipment, supplies,and access to the principal worksites;
2. make these resources available to enrollees and high school counselors; and
3. absorb the salaries of enrollees when each "NYC Phase" terminated.

Additional responsibilities of private sector participants under terms of the program included: (a) identification of training and employment positions; (b) development of orientation and career exploration curricula with local NYC and school officials; (c) assignment of supervisory personnel to train and work with enrollees; (d) development of procedures governing payrolls during training periods where the employer bore the full cost of the enrollee's salary; and (e) designation of a company coordinator to assist the NYC sponsor and high school counselor in developing program curricula and schedules.

In addition to the recruitment and referral of youth, NYC sponsors were responsible for program administration, including record keeping, paying NYC wages to enrollees, maintaining liaison with the company coordinators and high school counselors, working with the metro NAB youth director to provide for joint monitoring, and establishing a program review committee.

Longitudinal Impact Assessment of the 1971-72 Vocational Exploration in the Private Sector Program, by Donald P. Sprengel and E. Allan Tomey, Manpower Administration Report, U.S. Department of Labor, July 1974.

Nature of Study

The purpose of this assessment was to determine the extent to which the VEPS-I program attained its several objectives. Although research hypotheses are not explicitly stated in the longitudinal impact assessment report, several key hypotheses can be deduced from the test. The VEPS emphasis on intensive counseling coupled with paid work exploration and work experience would have positive impact on:

- academic indicators such as grade point average and attendance patterns;
- graduation rates (and negative impact on dropout rates); and
- employability of youth upon graduation.

Findings

The impact of VEPS-I upon grade point performance was both significant and widespread. Dramatic improvement over the 1970-71 base year was characteristic of the VEPS-I youth during the experimental year; the impact of this change persisted through the following (senior) year. Both frequency distributions and t-score tests confirmed this observation at a statistically significant level. Overall improvement in grade point performance from 1970-71 through 1972-73 was also statistically significant. The net result was that the VEPS-I Program was instrumental in improving the grade point averages of VEPS-I youth to the point where they assumed a superior position over the control group in contrast to their inferior position during the baseline year.

Much the same findings occurred in analysis of attendance data. In 1970-71, the baseline year, the control group was significantly superior to the VEPS-I completers in terms of attendance patterns. Through each of the following two years this significance was eliminated, and the data indicate a slightly superior position for the VEPS-I group. Analysis of change in attendance patterns also yielded high statistical significance. The implications of the change data are that VEPS-I had a significantly positive impact upon VEPS-I youth attendance patterns.

Significant as these quantifiable indicators are, the ultimate test of the academic impact of the VEPS program rested with only one outcome -- whether the youth graduated or dropped out of school. Virtually no difference existed between the control group and the VEPS-I group in terms of either graduation rates or dropping out. Therefore, given the fact that VEPS was targeted for youth who were probable dropouts as evidenced by lower preprogram indicators, the conclusion is forced that the VEPS program reduced the propensity for VEPS youth to drop out of school and materially contributed to their earning high school diplomas.

The employability data are no less striking than those on academic performance. VEPS was intended to provide part-time employment during the VEPS-I year, full-time summer employment in the summer intervening between the VEPS-I year and the senior year, part-time employment in the senior year, and full-time employment upon graduation from high school. Part III of the report contains data indicating that the program was successful in the first three of these four employment objectives; part of this success can, however, be attributed to a continuation of VEPS into a second year. No control group information was pertinent to these VEPS objectives. The ultimate objective for which comparative data can be generated is employability upon graduation, representative of a smooth transition from high school into the full-time labor force. Regardless of the combination of cities analyzed, at least half of the VEPS youth were employed full-time compared to approximately thirty percent of the control group. Unemployment among the control group was nearly double that of the VEPS group. VEPS youth were employed at a significantly higher rate than was the control group. The general conclusion drawn by Sprengel and Tomey was that:

> the VEPS program proved to be an effective, significant, and lasting experience for the youth who completed the program, resulted in significant improvement in academic performance and attendance in school, and contributed significantly to the ability of the VEPS-I youth to obtain full-time employment upon graduation from high school.

Youth Conservation Corps

The Youth Conservation Corps, administered jointly by the Department of Agriculture and the Department of the Interior, has three stated objectives:

1. to accomplish needed conservation on public lands;
2. to provide gainful employment for 15-18 year olds of all backgrounds; and
3. to instill in participants an understanding and appreciation of their natural environment and heritage.

As authorized under the Youth Conservation Corps Act of 1970, as amended, all young people between the ages of 15 and 18 are eligible for employment (not exceeding 90 days' duration) on conservation projects on federal and non-federal public lands. Most of the projects are concerned with the development, preservation, and maintenance of natural resources on public lands and waters within the states. The program also provides an educational component which seeks to develop in participating youth a concern for their natural environment.

In FY 1976, approximately 23,000 young men and women were employed in fifty states for about eight weeks during the summer months. Although the Youth Conservation Corps does not aim specifically at dealing with the youth transition to work, results from one study do provide some information, particularly on the acquisition of work skills.

Youth and the Environment: An Evaluation of the 1971 Youth Conservation Corps, by Robert W. Marans, B.L. Driver and John C. Scott, Survey Research Center, Institute for Social Research, University of Michigan, Ann Arbor, Michigan, 1972.

Nature of Study

The purpose of this evaluation was to assess young people's responses to their summer experience in terms of:

1. their attitudes toward and evaluation of the Youth Conservation Corps program and various attributes of it;
2. changes in their understanding of and concern for environmental and ecological issues and problems;
3. changes in their attitudes toward and relationships with peers and adults;
4. changes in recreational and work skills; and
5. changes in their self-concept or perceptions of self.

This report presents the results of a study of approximately 2400 young people who, in the summer of 1971, participated in the first part of a three-year Conservation Corps pilot program. The evaluation is based on questionnaires given to all Corps members and camp directors and on visits to a representative number of camps. Questionnaires were administered to Corps members at the beginning and end of each camp session to observe changes in their responses. Information from camp directors concerned the camp environments and programs and was considered in relation to the Corps members' responses.

Findings*

From the point of view of the young people involved, the Youth Conservation Corps was a highly successful program. When asked about their experience, 86% said they liked it and 94% said it was worthwhile. In general, girls were more enthusiastic about the program than boys. White and Spanish American Corps members rated their experience highly, while black and Native American youth were less satisfied with their experience. Lower levels of satisfaction also were expressed by the 15-year olds while 18-year-olds were the most satisfied with their experience.

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* Although the primary foci of this report do not relate directly to the transition of youth to employment, sections do address the work experience component of the YCC.

In considering specific attributes of camps, Corps members tended to evaluate favorably the quality and the quantity of the work accomplished during the summer. Less favorable ratings were given to coordination efforts between the work assignments and environmental education and to the education they received while working.

Change was observed in the level of work skills developed as a result of the program. Whereas most Corps members entered camp with moderate levels of experience in using a wide range of tools, the proportion who said they felt very skilled in using tools increased substantially.

The Comprehensive Employment and Training Act

CETA, as the Comprehensive Employment and Training Act of 1973 is commonly called, has increasingly become the mechanism for providing services to youth in their transition from school to work. It was the intent of the law to decentralize and decategorize manpower programs previously administered nationally. Locally elected officials of governmental units of 100,000 or more persons, called Prime Sponsors, now have responsibility for developing and implementing comprehensive training and employment programs for "economically disadvantaged, unemployed and underemployed persons."

Title I (Sections 101 and 106) outlines the services to be provided at the discretion of the local Prime Sponsors and of the Governors of states in "balance of state areas." These services include outreach, recruitment, counseling, assessment, skill training -- both institutional and on-the-job -- job development and placement, supportive services, labor market information, and transitional public service employment. Local manpower planning councils are mandated (Section 104) which are representative of "the client community and of community based organizations, the employment service, education and training agencies and institutions, business, labor, and where appropriate, agriculture." Similar state councils are mandated to advise on programs administered by the state in the "balance of state" areas, and a further state manpower services council (Section 107) is provided to coordinate all local efforts. Prime Sponsors may administer programs directly or subcontract part or all of the programs to local agencies. Approximately 60% of Title I participants are under 22 years of age.

Title III describes the special federal responsibilities of the Secretary of Labor to provide services to particular target groups, including youth; to conduct research, training, and evaluation; and to provide labor market statistics and a job bank.

Title IV provides for the continuation of the Job Corps residential training centers whose programs also affect youth directly.

Title II and VI provide for public service employment, Title VI having been added in 1974 as the "Emergency Jobs Program" because of the recession.

The new Youth Employment and Demonstration Projects Act of 1977 (YEDPA) provides for significant amendments to Title III and a new Title VIII. Among the Title III amendments are provisions for entitlement projects, community improvement programs, and youth employment and training activities. Title VIII establishes a Young Adult Conservation Corps, designed to provide jobs for unemployed youth and accomplish needed conservation work. All of these efforts will bear close examination as they impact on the youth transition to work.

At this time, due to CETA's relatively short existence as well as its emphasis on local administration of programs, there are few studies available addressing the impact of CETA on the transition from school to work. The major exception is the Job Corps, which predated CETA and was subsumed under Title IV.

Descriptive materials are available for projects funded under Title III and Title IV. Documentation of the National Program of Selected Population Segments, Phase I Report, July 22, 1977, by Abt Associates, is the first in a series of reports tracking NPSPS. The Phase I Report includes a preliminary summary of the goals, services, and target groups, as well as one-page abstracts of 82 projects. More detailed information on program operations and outcomes will be provided in future reports. Of the 82 projects funded under Title III, sixteen are youth-oriented, with work experience the most common service provided, followed by counseling and job readiness workshops.

CETA Title VI Project Description Reports, June 1977 by MDC, Inc., is also part of a series designed to provide information on replicable activities in operation within the national CETA delivery system. The report provides 50 descriptions of different types of projects which are replicable under Title VI. In addition to a narrative regarding program operation and implementation, there is a brief summary analysis of the value and potential of each project. Several of the projects have targeted eligible youth as their special emphasis.

In the following pages, the results of several specific evaluations of CETA programs are cited, including evaluations of the Job Corps predating CETA and several studies which, although they do not address CETA efforts directly, relate to the effects of manpower programs or the lack thereof.

The Comprehensive Employment and Training Act: Impact on People, Places, Programs, An Interim Report by William Mirengoff and Lester Rindler, National Academy of Sciences, Washington, D.C., 1976.

Nature of Study

The premises supporting decentralization and decategorization -- the two basic tenets of CETA -- are: (1) that local authorities know best local needs and how to respond to them and (2) to deal effectively with those needs, maximum flexibility in the use of manpower resources should replace the present system of categorical programs. To examine these premises and assess the social, economic and political effects of this new approach to the delivery of manpower services is the broad-ranging purpose of the NAS study. The data for this study come primarily from a sample of 28 units of government that encompass all types of Prime Sponsors (six cities, nine counties, nine consortia and four states). The sample has also been designed to represent variations in population and degree of unemployment.

Twenty resident field research associates have been selected to follow the implementation and operation of CETA for three years in the 28 Prime Sponsor jurisdictions. Several interview waves are planned. The focus is on six substantive concerns in Title I (Comprehensive Manpower Services):

- Distribution of resources
- Planning process
- Administrative process
- Delivery systems
- Mix of manpower programs
- Type of people served

To obtain information, the field research associates interviewed a minimum of seven key persons in each area representing officials responsible for implementing CETA, as well as others with a more independent interest in manpower development. The research associates summarized and interpreted the formal interviews and supplemented them with additional information and insights. These 28 field research associate reports provided the basis for this study. The field work and much of the data used in preparing this interim report relate to the early transition period (January-April, 1975).

Findings

Given the interim nature of the report, the range of findings is limited. Findings that are broken down by age indicate that in fiscal year 1974 63.1% of CETA Title I participants were 21 years of age or under. Also, it was found that of the four types of Prime Sponsors (cities, counties, consortia, and the balance of state Prime Sponsors), the balance of state programs reported the highest proportion of white clients, youth, persons with less than a high school education, and those not in the labor force, reflecting an emphasis on youth work-experience programs.

While this study does not focus primarily upon youth transition problems, when completed it might be a useful guide to understanding CETA manpower programs -- many of which are heavily involved in the transition of youth to employment.

Continuous Longitudinal Manpower Survey, Report Number 4: Characteristics of Enrollees Who Entered CETA Programs During Calendar Year 1975, November 1976. Prepared by Westat, Inc., 11600 Nebel Street, Rockville, Maryland 20852. Prepared for: Office of Policy, Evaluation and Research, ETA/USDOL, Washington, D.C.

Nature of Study

As part of the overall evaluation plan for CETA-funded programs, the Continuous Longitudinal Manpower Survey (CLMS) was developed under the auspices of the Employment and Training Administration (ETA) of the Department of Labor. CLMS is a continuous, longitudinal survey with no specified cut-off date, designed to collect and analyze data on a national sample of enrollees in employment and training programs funded under CETA Titles I, II, and VI, and under Title III summer youth programs. The primary long-range goal of the survey is to provide measures of the impact of CETA programs on enrollees. Impact will be determined through assessment of the nature and extent of differences between pre-program and post-program periods for CETA program participants, and these differences will be compared with similar changes in earnings for a comparable group of nonparticipants in order to estimate changes due to program participation. The CLMS also permits determination of relationships between post-program outcomes and manpower services received or activities engaged in by participants. This will help to measure the effectiveness of various manpower development activities and services delivered.

In addition to information for evaluation purposes, the CLMS provides considerable participant characteristic data not available from the national Prime Sponsor reporting system. Data in CLMS are available by major program activity, while reported data on characteristics in the Prime Sponsor reporting system are available only by CETA funding Title, which is not a consistent reflection of specific activities. Data on labor force participation histories of CETA participants are obtained from CLMS for periods before and after program participation. Similarly, histories of CETA participants' reliance on various other forms of public assistance are available from the CLMS data. Finally, estimates pertaining to demographic characteristics and family composition of CETA participants are available from CLMS in somewhat more detail than from sponsor reports.

The Continuous Longitudinal Manpower Survey is a survey of persons newly enrolled in employment and training programs administered by state and local governments under the Comprehensive Employment and Training Act of 1973. CLMS produces national estimates on CETA participants based on samples of approximately 3,750 new entrants selected each quarter. Data on sampled enrollees are gathered by Bureau of the Census personnel from records kept by the program operators and from personal interviews with the sampled participants. The CLMS design specifies initial interviews with all sampled enrollees and up to three follow-up interviews with some of these individuals over a three-year period. The sponsor data on individuals are collected at the time of sampling and are updated before each interview until termination of enrollment.

Findings

Based on preliminary data to be reported in Report No. 6, 41% of the total 2.1 million CETA enrollees in 1976 were summer youth work program participants -- a total of 850,000. Youth participants in nonsummer work experience programs numbered 312,000. Overall, 68% of CETA enrollees were youth aged 21 or less. Although most young people participated in summer and school-year work experience programs, they also represented 25% of the enrollees in training courses and public service employment.

TITLE IV - JOB CORPS: The Job Corps was established as part of the Economic Opportunity Act of 1964. Its purpose was to remove poor youth (16-21 years old) from their poverty neighborhoods to residential centers and provide them there with educational and vocational training designed to improve their employability. In 1969, responsibility for the program was moved from OEO to DOL, and emphasis was placed more on industrial occupations and job placement than on conservation work, the original focus.

Job Corps is a predominantly residential training program designed to develop a person's employability, responsibility, and productivity through training that is conducted at centers removed from the participant's previous environment*. In particular, it is aimed at reaching those youth who might profit from a change in their physical environment and need individual counseling and help in order to develop the talents, self-confidence, and motivation necessary to improve their economic status.

The program concentrates on providing comprehensive training geared toward basic education, skill training, and useful work experience. The basic education component includes reading, mathematics, English, consumer education, and work orientation. The vocational component prepares enrollees for specific occupations currently in demand, while the work experience component provides them with an opportunity for actual training on the job. Emphasis is also placed on the personal and cultural development of the trainees. Support services offered under the Job Corps program include the provision of clothing, living, and readjustment allowances, room and board, medical and dental care, and job placement. Eligible participants include young men and women, aged sixteen to twenty-one, who are permanent residents of the United States, come from low-income families, and lack education and skills to hold meaningful employment or successfully participate in regular school work. In addition, enrollees must be living in a poverty environment, be free of major medical or behavior problems,and have the basic capabilities and desire to complete the program.

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* The following description is taken, in large part, from Ellen Searcy, Work Experience as Preparation for Adulthood, Washington, D.C.: Social Research Group, The George Washington University, May 1973.

> Job Corps centers were originally of three types: 10 large (1,000 - 3,000 enrollees) men's centers, about 80 smaller (100 - 250) conservation centers -- also for men -- and 17 women's centers of medium size (300 - 1,100). All forms of centers were residential and provided health care and counseling in addition to their basic educational and vocational programs. In 1969, many of these centers were closed and smaller inner city or near city residential manpower centers were opened. In addition, eight residential support centers were started. While these were live-in and provided counseling, corps members were to receive training and education elsewhere in the community. All the support centers were closed in 1974, however (Levitan, 1975).

Under CETA Title IV, there are presently about 60 Job Corps centers in operation with openings for about 22,000 enrollees at a time. A year from now, the Corps is expected to have a trainee capacity of 44,000, with 70 new training centers being added.

"Success for the Job Corps program is gauged by the extent to which participants become more employable, increase their earning capacity, satisfy Armed Services requirements, raise their basic educational levels, and are more capable of coping with a complex society" (Searcy, 1973). These program goals can be assessed in part by the trainee's post-program performance, with the caveat that there have been few follow-up studies in the 70's, and aggregate data on the experience of enrollees after separation from the program are available for a maximum of only 18 months.

The effectiveness of the Job Corps was the subject of great debate in the 1960's, with several studies yielding mixed results; more recent studies point to more positive outcomes. The following summary of these study conclusions is drawn from the works of Levitan and Johnston (1975) and Taggart (1976) who synthesized results of numerous studies conducted in the 60's and 70's.

According to Taggart, Levitan, and Johnston, the Job Corps was the most ambitious of all federal manpower efforts and also one of the most costly -- in FY 1974, direct-costs per person-year were $6,800, with indirect costs bringing the total to $9,200 (Center for Naval Analyses, 1972). Costs were cut in 1967 by eliminating such activities as trips, extensive counseling, and recreation. In addition to being costly, the Job Corps approach is effective over a lengthy period of exposure, and many enrollees drop out before they can benefit from the program. In 1974, a quarter of the enrollees left after less than 30 days; half did not stay the three months considered a minimum for completion. This was a problem for both residential and non-residential centers.

Despite the variety of service strategies implemented, no one model proved to be more successful than the others, and there was little indication of which type of center or services most benefitted a particular type of participant. Increased emphasis on placement, however, did seem to have a positive impact on participants, as did the development of union training contracts to provide pre-apprenticeship training in the centers. Completers of this training move into jobs at union wage scales, significantly raising placement rates and average wage gains of enrollees.

Technical follow-up studies in the 1960's indicated that earnings rose by 4/5 for enrollees between the time of program entry and 6 months after termination. After 12 and 18 months, however, these gains declined and enrollees did only somewhat better than those who had been accepted but had not participated in the program. In regard to whether the benefits equaled the high cost of Job Corps assistance, an OEO study found that benefits exceeded costs (Cain, 1967), while a GAO study concluded that the cost outweighed the benefits (Resource Management Corporation, 1969). However, uncertainties in the data and the lack of a truly random control group, as well as analyst biases, rendered cost-benefit analysis of the Job Corps imperfect at best.

The situation has improved in the 1970's, as witnessed by the fact that in FY 1974, 2/3 of the program terminees were employed upon termination and a fifth went into the military or back to school, as compared with 53% being employed and 11% returning to school or entering the military in FY 1969. In regard to educational gains, average learning rates rose from .18 grades per month to .26, with 10% of the enrollees getting GED diplomas. With average monthly reading and arithmetic gains of over 2 months per month of stay, and average length of stay at about 5.5 months, "the typical enrollee emerged with his skills advanced by more than a 10-month school year of education" (Levitan and Johnston, p. 87).

The admittedly subjective reports of enrollees, relatives, friends, and employers testify to other benefits. According to one set of surveys, 2/3 of former enrollees stated that the vocational training had been helpful to them; 3/4 gave positive ratings to the education component of the program. These proportions were even higher among those who completed the program. Sixty-two percent of terminees' relatives, friends, and employers felt that returning participants had changed for the better, with the greatest change among blacks and program completers. All these survey results tended to support the claim that the Job Corps was helpful in providing corpsmen with a "sense of motivation, with an ability to plan for the future and with a capacity to take action" (Harris, 1969, p. 32).

Levitan concludes that:

> Taken as a whole, the assessments of the program give a clearly positive reading. Almost all studies have found that corpsmen are better off after the program than they were on entrance, whether this standard of measurement is employment, earnings, educational level, motivation, or work habits. The longer the stay, the greater the beneficial impacts seem to be. Whether these benefits outweigh the high cost per person, it seems indisputable that at least for some of these hard-core disadvantaged youths, the Job Corps succeeded where other educational and vocational efforts had failed (p. 101).

Other Manpower-Related Studies

An Evaluation of Manpower Programs for Young Men, 1964-1972: Based on the National Longitudinal (Parnes) Labor Market Surveys, by Gerald G. Somers and Jennifer L. Warlick, Department of Economics, University of Wisconsin, Madison, 1975.

Nature of Study

The purposes of the study were: (1) to determine the characteristics of young male enrollees in manpower programs; (2) to estimate the probability of enrollment of young men with specified characteristics; (3) to evaluate the long-term effects of enrollment on their future earnings; and among the enrollees, (4) to determine the longitudinal effects on earnings of (a) completion of the program, (b) duration of enrollment, (c) the year of termination, and (d) the length of time since termination. Using a sample from the Parnes National Longitudinal Surveys and social security numbers, approximately 3,500 white and 1,500 black young men were matched with Manpower Administration program enrollee records to measure the frequency of program participation and its long-term economic effect on individuals.

Findings

The probability of program participation was inversely related to age, education, family size, total assets, family income, and earnings in the 12 months preceding the interview dates. It was positively related to nonwhite status and the number of dependents.

In the regression analyses, the simple enrollee/nonenrollee comparison showed an earnings advantage for nonenrollees. However, a more detailed analysis of the nature of program participation and the timing of program termination provided a more favorable view of manpower enrollment:

a. Program completers more than noncompleters and nonenrollees showed an earnings advantage.

b. Combined coefficients for program enrollment, weeks of enrollment, program completion, year of program termination, and years since termination indicate benefits in earnings for those who terminated in 1966, 1967, 1968, and 1969. For those who terminated in 1964-65 and 1970-71, the sample size and/or brief time period render the results less reliable.

c. Increases in earnings reached their peak in the third year after program termination; however, benefits continued to accrue after the third year for those who terminated their program in the 1966-69 period.

A Study of Negro Male High School Dropouts Who are Not Reached by Federal Work-Training Programs, Final Report, by Regis H. Walther, Principal Investigator; Margaret L. Magnusson, Research Associate; and Shirley E. Cherkasky, Research Associate; Social Research Group, George Washington University, Washington, D.C., 1972.

Nature of Study

The purpose of this study was to investigate those characteristics of Negro male high school dropouts that might inhibit their participation in federal manpower programs. Two study groups totaling 665 young men, born before 1952, who left school in 1966-67 before graduating from high school, were constituted in Baltimore and St. Louis. These young men were interviewed in the summer of 1969. Interview information was secured for 58% of all subjects, and an additional 25% were determined to be in military service, in jail, deceased, or in a hospital and could not be interviewed. Of this sample, 129 individuals or 20% were found to have participated in manpower programs (11% in the Job Corps, 6% in the Out-of-School NYC program, 2% in MDTA, and 1% in two or more programs).

Findings

The study found a widespread lack of knowledge concerning available programs and where and how to apply. It also documented the variety of positive and negative impressions that respondents had toward individual manpower programs.

A large portion of the dropout population in the two cities qualified for manpower programs under poverty guidelines. However, subjects who did not meet the poverty guidelines appeared to have as great a need for enhanced employability as those who did.

Unawareness of the NYC and the MDTA programs could account for most of the non-participation in these programs by individuals with salient employability needs.

The following conclusions were reached regarding the nature of the needs for employability assistance:

a. Unemployment did not result primarily from lack of available jobs.

b. Job turnover resulted primarily from a lack of fit between the subject and the job.

c. There was a wide discrepancy between the ten-year occupational goals and the current jobs held by the subjects.

d. Employability needs did not decrease as age increased among the age ranges in this study.

e. Lack of education or training was reported as the principal barrier to occupational goal achievement.

The apparent success of the widespread use of the media announcements of the Job Corps suggests that this means of reaching youth in need of the services of manpower programs might increase the awareness of other programs.

Rural Oriented Research and Development Projects: A Review and Synthesis, Gene S. Leonardson and David M. Nelson, R&D Monograph 50, U.S. Department of Labor, Employment and Training Administration, 1977.

Nature of Study

The purpose of this report was to review and summarize previously funded research on employment and training problems and programs in rural areas in the United States and to extract general lessons and program guidelines to direct future research and programmatic experimentation. One section of the study, "Employment and Training Programs for Rural Youth," proposed recommendations for rural youth program development which are summarized below.

Findings

Migration is and will continue to be necessary for a large percentage of rural youth.

Primary problems for rural-to-urban migrants are: (a) insufficient training to allow effective competition in the urban job market and (b) lack of social skills and values necessary for adjustment to life in an urban environment.

A 'trip to the city' program of familiarization with urban centers will not help subsequent migrants in their adjustment to urban life.

The urban bias of program regulations (in the definition of "disadvantaged") is a major problem in implementing federal programs in rural areas.

Part-time jobs as part of an in-school program have no measurable impact on the subsequent employment experience of program participants.

Programs need to teach both occupational and social skills.

The need for an out-of-school program is regional and depends on school dropout rates.

Meshing a rural program with a program in a growth center will provide added services for rural youth. Complete integration should be avoided in order to maintain individualized attention necessary for rural programs.

Meshing with other employment and training programs, including those providing on-the-job institutional training, should be pursued.

The Youth Work Experience Process Model

During the period June 1974 to June 1976, the National Office for Social Responsibility (NOSR) developed and put into operation a Model Youth Work Experience Program under contract to the U.S. Department of Labor, Offender Rehabilitation Division*. This effort, funded under the Manpower Development and Training Act, was implemented with two-hundred youth participants from the Oakland, California, area, together with local school and government officials, a staff of eight on site, several people in Washington at the NOSR headquarters, and an evaluation team based in Boulder, Colorado, that made regular visits to the Oakland site.

The purpose of the grant was twofold:

1. to develop a conceptual model utilizing the work experience concept for the use and benefit of delinquent and pre-delinquent youth (ages sixteen to eighteen years); and
2. to disseminate the successful aspects of the model on a nationwide basis for use by local Prime Sponsors eager to meet the employment and training needs of disadvantaged youths.

The intent of the program was to assist delinquent and disadvantaged youth in increasing their employability through education, vocational training, work experience, and counseling (BRI, 1976). A major objective in demonstrating the Youth Work Experience Process Model was to test the hypothesis that youth would "begin to reject problem behavior and deviant roles and to accept conforming behavior and conventional social roles" if they were able to find satisfactory work opportunities (BRI, 1976). Underlying this hypothesis is the assumption that "solving youth problems lies in the examination and remolding of institutional structures and attitudes which either facilitate or impede access to socially acceptable and personally gratifying roles" (NOSR, 1976).

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* The following description is based on the Final Report: Youth Work Experience Process Model Program, The National Office for Social Responsibility, 1976.

The program model specified process goals at three levels:

> Individual: The Youth Work Experience Process will provide individual youth participants with a placement in continued education, permanent employment, or skilled training, Hopefully, the evaluation will measure the reduction of delinquent and antisocial behavior among participants in the program.
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> Community: A program and process of community involvement will be demonstrated which will be compatible with and helpful to the local CETA administration. A new and meaningful working relationship will be established among at least three groups of the community: the private sector, the public sector, and young people. Adult volunteers will participate in training and guidance, making their experiences personally gratifying while addressing the needs of the community and increasing the probability of their continued involvement in social service. The private sector will have an avenue to transfer its skills and technology to social issues and in the long run help prepare a labor supply for meaningful roles in the work market.
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> National: A youth training and employment model will have been designed, implemented and tested which will receive nationwide distribution among CETA Prime Sponsors (NOSR, 1976).

PROGRAM OPERATION: As implemented in Oakland, the program included elements of both the Neighborhood Youth Corps in-school and out-of-school strategies and the Vocational Exploration in the Private Sector (VEPS) approach which stresses classroom training and work site experience in support of specific occupational goals. There are stipends for classroom work and work site time. In Oakland, the public school programs for GED and remedial education classes were used. The program's work stations were tied as much as possible to the classroom instruction to insure job related learning.

Youth and adult volunteers worked throughout the program as counselors, identifying community resources and tie-ins to the local labor market. They provided continuous educational, social, and vocational support.

PROGRAM SUPPORTIVE SERVICES: Close working relationships were established with health, mental health, legal assistance, and counseling agencies, as well as juvenile diversion programs, recreational organizations, and community and culturally based agencies. The goal of these supportive services was to bring a comprehensive prescription approach to the basic physical, social,and psychological needs of program participants.

An Evaluation of the Oakland Youth Work Experience Program, Behavioral Research Institute, Boulder, Colorado, November 1976.

Nature of Study

> An outside evaluation of the Oakland Youth Work Experience Program was carried out independently by the Behavioral Research Institute (BRI) of Boulder, Colorado, under subcontract with the NOSR. In order to test the hypotheses underlying the development of the YWEP Model, BRI developed and tested a series of socio-psychological scales measuring:
>
> 1. youth's perceived access to educational and occupational goals;

2. youth's perceptions of negative labeling applied to them in school, in their families, and among their peers;
3. youth's alienation as indicated by three sub-scales measuring powerlessness, normlessness, and societal estrangement;
4. youth's self-esteem; and
5. youth's self-reported delinquency.

The evaluation implemented a classical research design with matched experimental and control groups which utilized pre- and post-tests on dependent variables. All of the youth applying for admission to the program were administered the evaluation questionnaire as part of the application process. They were told that more youth were applying than there were positions in the program and that the final selections would be made randomly by a computer. Each youth, therefore, had the same chance of being selected. This process seemed to be clear and fair to the youth.

After the initial tests had been conducted, a typological procedure was used to match pairs of youth who were very similar on their initial scores on all the scales and similar in terms of age, sex, ethnicity, and referral sources. One member of each pair was then randomly selected to participate in the program and his or her counterpart became a member of the control group. Both the experimental group (those in the program) and the control group were administered the same test again at the end of the program twenty-six weeks later and again after six months had expired since the end of the program.

To enhance the precision of the analyses, a typological analysis was performed using only the initial scores on scales. This analysis identified seven distinct "types" of youth in the program and permitted assessments to be made of differential impact of the program on different kinds of youth. The types ranged from those essentially normal with very nearly average scores on all the scales, to the highly successful with desirable scores on all the scales, to the highly delinquent with very undesirable scores on all the scales.

Findings

STUDY I:

There was no empirical evidence of favorable program impact on participants (Experimentals) in general during the first six month evaluation period.

There was limited evidence that participation for a full year had some beneficial effects for experimental respondents. In particular, powerlessness was found to decline between the first and second follow-ups and self-esteem appeared to increase between the pre-test and the second follow-up.

In general, control respondents showed little change during the first six month evaluation period and appeared to show some evidence of unfavorable change by the time of the second follow-up, particularly an increase in parental rejection.

There was only limited evidence that particular types of youth experienced differential program impact over time.

The vast majority of program participants evaluated the Youth Work Experience Program positively at the first follow-up when the largest sample of participants was available.

STUDY II:

Experimental respondents again reported no favorable changes and, in fact, showed unfavorable change in self-reported delinquency and parental rejection. Relative to Control respondents, the Experimentals reported greater normative pressure at the follow-up.

Control respondents yielded a single significant change by the time of the follow-up -- a decreased occupational aspiration.

A large proportion (50%) of the Controls worked during the evaluation period, again confounding the results somewhat.

Controls who did not work reported several significant unfavorable changes at the follow-up but only a single difference (reduced educational aspiration) relative to the Experimentals.

Direct comparisons of Controls who worked and Controls who did not work yielded a number of significant differences, all favoring those who worked.

Although the study findings are somewhat disappointing in regard to the impact of the program, they do lend support to the hypothesis that job satisfaction is positively correlated with favorable changes in attitudes and perceptions (as measured by the impact scales). "Virtually all of the significant correlations are in a description which reflects the fact that a desirable change on the impact dimensions is related to greater job satisfaction on whichever dimension. Among the controls, for example, change on Normlessness correlated - .35 with Satisfaction with the work itself. That is, the greater the satisfaction with intrinsic aspects of one's job, the greater the relative decline in Normlessness from time 2 to time 3"(BRI, 1976, p. 80).

In addition to the BRI evaluation, NOSR asked YWEP participants to provide their personal evaluations of the program, including assessments of all program components, work assignments, etc. NOSR reported that tabulations of participants' assessments demonstrate that the majority of participants rated each of the program components as interesting and useful (NOSR, 1976, p. 50).

The Work Incentive Program

The Work Incentive (WIN) Program, authorized by the 1967 amendments to the Social Security Act, is specifically designed to help welfare recipients find employment*. Prior to 1971 amendments, program emphasis was placed on job training; after 1971, the program focused on immediate job placement. All persons over the age of 16 who receive Aid to Families with Dependent Children (AFDC) benefits must, under the law, register to participate in the WIN program unless they are specifically exempted. Those chosen to participate are required to accept employment, training, or other job preparatory services or face denial of further welfare benefits.

In Portland, Oregon, the Bureau of Social Science Research has been conducting a demonstration project involving the use of vouchers to enable WIN participants to "buy" up to a year of skill training in a local vocational training institution of their choice. The experience thus far indicates that the voucher system is most successful with the younger, better educated , and the women among the program participants.

> Vouchered trainees successfully managed their own training plans and negotiated with institutions with little, if any, intercession from WIN. Few returned the vouchers or opted for agency assistance. Clients made decisions on training and arranged admission to programs within an average of eight days, which was well under the maximum of six weeks the program allowed for this negotiation (BSSR Newsletter, Winter-Spring 1976).

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* The following description is based on the Employment and Training Report of the President, 1976, pp. 116-121.

The researchers conclude that the Portland project has shown the use of vouchers to WIN to be administratively feasible but are still concerned with the difficulty posed by evaluation of their effectiveness.

Youth in the WIN Program: Report on a Survey of Client Backgrounds, Program Experience, and Subsequent Labor Force Participation, by Ann Richardson with the assistance of Bruce B. Dunning, Bureau of Social Science Research, Inc., Washington, D.C., November 1975.

Nature of Study

The authors investigated the reasons for the apparently greater difficulties the WIN program had experienced in dealing with youthful clients and the apparently higher dropout and low placement rates for young (under 22) participants. The study was carried out in two phases. Phase I was designed to provide a data base for the intensive Phase II investigation of WIN program experiences with enrollees under 22 and the backgrounds, attitudes, WIN experiences, and recent histories of the enrollees themselves. In the first phase BSSR analyzed associations between program characteristics and success rates. The data for Phase I were obtained by means of a mail questionnaire which was completed in 1971 by a random sample of 100 WIN project directors, from among the 278 local WIN projects then in operation. Phase II involved interviews with 518 young people in 13 cities across the United States who were in WIN at some time between July 1971 and the spring of 1973. The objectives of the analysis were to examine patterns of program exposure and to assess their effects on the post-WIN labor force behavior of these respondents.

Findings

PHASE I:

Phase I was completed in November 1972*. The most important findings, which guided the design for Phase II, included the following:

Project directors felt that the greatest barrier to placement of very young enrollees (16-17) was age itself. A combination of laws, regulations and restrictions made it almost impossible to place anyone in this age group in a meaningful job, according to project directors.

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* J. David Roessner and Gloria S. Hamilton, Youth in the WIN Program, Phase I, Final Report (Washington: Bureau of Social Science Research, November 1972). At the time of review, this document was not available to NMI. The above findings were reproduced *in toto* from the Phase II report.

Project directors did not find a great deal of difference in the problems faced in placing 18-21 year olds from those faced in placing older enrollees, except that so-called "personal problems" of the enrollees increase with age. "Personal problems", as well as arrest records and poor employment records, were not reported to be common barriers to placement for very young enrollees. Thus, the project directors' perceptions did not coincide with the notion of young enrollees being a "problem population"; in fact, except for the employment restrictions which affected the youngest group, they were described as less problem-prone than older enrollees.

There was some evidence that extensive use of OJT was associated with improved placement rates for younger enrollees.

High placement rates or low dropout rates did not appear to be two sides of the same coin. High staff turnover and high instructor/enrollee ratios in classes seemed to be associated with higher dropout rates, but staff characteristics had very little importance for success measured by placement rates for young people.

Projects which relied heavily on sending all or most clients through basic education, orientation and institutional vocational training seemed to have high dropout rates for all enrollees.

No consistent relationships could be found between aggregated enrollee characteristics within a project (such as race or sex) and success, although the general level of education of a project's clientele was associated with both high placement and low dropout rates.

The study found no significant correlation between local unemployment rates and either placement or retention of enrollees in the program.

PHASE II:

Results of multiple regression analyses indicated that participation in one or another program component differed widely from city to city, that these site effects were independent of the work experience and that they were clearly more important than the effects of individual client characteristics. This finding tends to correspond to observations contained in other WIN evaluations that were not specifically targeted toward youth. The WIN program had undergone major legal and administrative changes during its relatively short existence, and one might expect this to cause wider variance in service provision at the local level as compared to certain other federal manpower programs.

In addition to the large site effects, there is evidence that WIN staffs tended in general to assign clients who were better prepared for employment (by virtue of pre-WIN education and employment experience) to high-employment potential program components, such as on-the-job training (OJT).

Specific aspects of WIN program exposure and termination which had discernible effects on the proportion in the labor force immediately after leaving WIN--OJT, vocational training, staff sponsorship and dropping out--had very little effect, if any, on the longer-run post-WIN patterns. Furthermore, in only one case did BSSR observe an indirect chain of influence of program exposure on these outcomes: OJT, by influencing whether the participant worked immediately after having WIN, enhanced somewhat the probability of stable labor force attachment in the longer run. In general, however, the most plausible conclusion is that various sorts of exposure to the WIN program (or disadvantages, in the case of dropouts) are later swamped by the more immediate circumstances of day-to-day living--factors such as employers' attitudes toward young, relatively inexperienced workers, labor market conditions and child-bearing -- which probably overwhelm most of the impact of WIN program participation for this group of young people.

Supported Work Programs

MANPOWER DEMONSTRATION RESEARCH CORPORATION SUPPORTED WORK PROJECT: The Manpower Demonstration Research Corporation (MDRC) was established in 1974 to oversee, monitor, and evaluate employment demonstration projects for people who have traditionally had difficulty getting or holding regular jobs: women on welfare with dependent children, out-of-school youth, former drug addicts, and ex-offenders recently released from prison.

In addition to MDRC, which was specially created to serve as the management arm of the experiment, this undertaking involved: a private sponsor, The Ford Foundation; five federal sponsoring agencies, the Employment and Training Administration of the Labor Department, the Law Enforcement Assistance Administration of the Justice Department, the National Institute on Drug Abuse, the Office of Planning and Evaluation of HEW, and the Office of Policy Development and Research of HUD; 13 original project sites; and a principal research contractor, Mathematica, Inc., with a closely aligned subcontractor, the Institute for Research on Poverty of the University of Wisconsin.

The program being carried out is called supported work. It is a transitional program; participants leave at the end of a fixed period of time, whether they have obtained a regular job, as is hoped, or not. While in the program, supported workers earn entry level wages, with opportunities to increase their earnings through good performance and attendance. The program takes place in thirteen cities or rural areas across the country and is paid for by a combination of public and private dollars, through federal grants at the national level and city, county,and state monies at the local level.

The concept that underlies supported work is that some people, because of the workings of the economy and labor market, because of inadequate motivation or training, or because of the reluctance or discrimination of employers, have never been able to make a successful connection with the world of work. They haven't the habit of work; the discipline, however rudimentary, to get to work on time and remain there all day; the education skills or the confidence to gain employment in a competitive society. Supported work offers such people two things: a job,and the opportunity to make good in it, and a chance to gain permanent employment.

While the local projects have great flexibility in the design of the work sites, some program features have been standardized. These relate to: eligibility criteria, wages and bonuses, length of employment, and intake procedures.

Because of the staggered start-up dates of local operations, the first full year of the national demonstration of supported work ran from March 1, 1975 through July 31, 1976. During that period, a total of 2538 people entered the thirteen local projects; as of July 31, 1976, there were 1242 people remaining in the program, including 449 ex-offenders, 260 AFDC women, 224 ex-addicts, 207 youth, and 102 mentally disabled and alcoholics. The last two groups were added pursuant to local project initiatives.

The cost of employing these people and of operating the individual sites in the demonstration ranged from $500,000 to $1,300,000 per site, depending on program enrollment and other factors. MDRC, as the agent of the funding group, provided approximately 60% of the total funds required to run the demonstration sites; local program operators raised the remainder of their budgets from local funding sources and the revenue producing work projects.

Because the project is so new, only preliminary evaluative results are available. Extensive data are being collected on the operation of the projects and the effect of the projects upon participants. Data are being gathered through interviews with participants, project staff, client referral sources, employers and labor, community and political leaders; through written reports from local project and MDRC field staff; and through the MDRC management information system.

Analysis of Nine-Month Interviews for Supported Work: Results of an Early Sample, Mathematica Policy Research and the Institute for Research on Poverty, University of Wisconsin, September 1977.

Nature of Study

This early and preliminary report on the MDRC program is based on interviews with a sample of 691 ex-addicts, ex-offenders, and youth at seven program sites -- 356 "experimentals" (program participants) and 335 "controls" (persons eligible for the program but assigned by lot to non-participant status). Interviews were administered to the entire group nine months after the experimentals enrolled in the program.

Findings

Analysis of the interviews suggests that "for a good many (of the participants), the program is thus far working as intended." Findings are that:

1. participants earned an average of $3,333 in the nine month period in contrast to the average $1,298 earned by controls;

2. participants worked approximately 75% of the available working hours, whereas controls worked about 25% of the available hours;

3. the average experimental group member received half of the amount of welfare benefits received by the average control group member;

4. participants experienced a 26% reduction in arrests; and

5. in the youth group, supported work resulted in an almost 20% lower incidence of drug use among participants.

(All of these results were found to be statistically significant at the 95% level.)

The authors state that "although these initial results deserve attention, they should be viewed mainly as a preliminary illustration of the kind of analysis we shall be undertaking in our evaluation of the Supported Work Program."

Apprenticeship Programs

The Bureau of Labor Statistics estimates that approximately 400,000 new craftworkers are needed each year in this country. However, only 45,000 new journeymen come out of registered apprenticeship programs annually, despite the general acknowledgement that significant advantages accrue to participants in apprenticeship programs. Workers who come through this system "enjoy greater employment stability, have higher lifetime earnings, and are more successful in advancing beyond the journeyman level" (Mitchell, 1977).

A number of reasons have been advanced to account for the fact that the supply of new journeymen is not commensurate with the nation's need for them. One important factor appears to be the low esteem accorded blue-collar work by American society.

> The American working man has lost relative class status with the growth of higher education. Changes in the nature of the labor force have dramatized the professional and technical experts to the relative detriment of the skilled worker...Schools tend to reinforce this tendency, since most teachers know little about blue-collar work. So do the media; the only publicity given to workers is when they are out on strike and there they are often shown in a bad light (Rosow in DOL, 1971).

The effects of these pervasive social attitudes on young people are illustrated by the findings of a Manpower Administration study on apprenticeship, undertaken at Purdue University in the late 60's. In surveying more than 2,000 high school students in 22 public school systems, the researchers found that:

> Most students planned to enter white-collar occupations as professionals, managers, clerical workers, engineers, etc. rather than to become skilled tradesmen or other blue-collar workers. The marked preference for white-collar jobs was true regardless of the students' socioeconomic levels or grades in high school (DOL, 1971).

If white-collar bias is responsible for steering students away from the craft occupations, it is also true that barriers exist within the trades themselves that may have the effect of discouraging potential applicants, particularly female and minority youth. According to one observer, the following factors contribute significantly to the lack of expansion of apprenticeship programs:

> 1. Unions in some hiring hall crafts have historically viewed apprenticeships as a means for (a) regulating their labor markets and (b) controlling or protecting their trade jurisdictions. Industrial unions are concerned lest the apprenticeship system disturb seniority rights of workers and limit entrance into the skilled crafts lines to a single method.
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> 2. Many unions want to continue to accept anyone who is "qualified" and to retain the right to decide what qualified means in terms of the local labor market. Unions, and to a lesser extent employers, recognize demands of peak periods and will not restrict achievement of journeyman status only to completing apprentices.
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> 3. In this country, participation in apprenticeship is largely voluntary. (Wisconsin is the only State that requires apprenticeship for workers learning an apprenticeable trade that requires a year or more of on-the-job training (OJT). At this point there is no special tax dollar carrot of reward, subsidy, or other financial inducement for an employer to conduct an apprenticeship program. Conversely, there is no special penalty, or no law violated, for not engaging in apprenticeship (Mitchell, 1977).

Another factor that affects both employer and union behavior, as well as the attitudes of potential applicants, is the vulnerability of the trades to downswings in the business cycle. During periods of high unemployment, when even skilled craftsmen are often laid off, employers are reluctant to hire apprentices (DOL, 1971).

APPRENTICESHIP OUTREACH PROGRAM: Major initiatives have been undertaken by the Department of Labor to address the problems cited above, to strengthen the apprenticeship system, and to expand it to establish apprenticeship as the basic avenue to skills acquisition in all industries. Of particular interest for this review are the Apprenticeship Outreach Programs which have been established to recruit minority applicants and to assist them in meeting the entrance requirements of registered apprenticeship programs.

Begun in 1967, the Apprenticeship Outreach Program (AOP) operates in 105 cities nationwide. Apprenticeship courses run from 4-10 weeks, depending on the particular skill and the trainee's needs. Once a trainee has passed an apprenticeship entrance examination, he or she can enroll in a formal industry-funded apprenticeship program, lasting from two to six years. Over 50,000 persons have been placed since 1967. The program also provides on-the-job training to upgrade the knowledge and skills of persons who have varying degrees of experience in the construction trades but who have not achieved journeyman status. This program to assist such workers become journeymen and union members operates in 73 cities and has helped over 17,000 trainees reach journeyman status since 1968 (MIS, December 8, 1976).

Almost from its inception, observers of the AOP programs have agreed that this program approach has been highly successful in achieving its goals.

> Apprenticeship Outreach Programs have been more successful than any other approach (to the problem of discrimination) in apprenticeship programs. They have so far demonstrated the importance of a comprehensive approach which recruits and prepares Negro youngsters for apprenticeship programs. This approach has also demonstrated its effectiveness in getting Negroes into jobs outside the apprenticeship trades more effectively and at lower costs than other programs (Marshall and Briggs as quoted in MIS Reference File, 1969, 21:1001).

In 1974, the Manpower Information Service reported that as a result of the AOP programs, coupled with a more vigorous enforcement of the anti-discrimination provisions of the apprenticeship regulations, the ratio of minority apprentices had increased steadily over the past few years, from 6% of all new apprentices to 14% in 1974 (MIS, June 5, 1974). In 1976, this trend continued; at the end of the year, statistics showed that minority group members accounted for 18.1% of registered apprentices with women accounting for 1.2% (Burdetsky, 1977).

A recent ETA sponsored study, The Apprenticeship Outreach Program, A Summary Review (1976), concludes that:

> AOP has proven to be an effective mechanism for facilitating entrance of minorities into the full spectrum of the construction trades and to a lesser extent, retention in the various apprenticeship programs. Some researchers have concluded that AOP represents the only practical mechanism available for many minorities to gain entrance into the more skilled occupations (DOL, 1976).

The study notes, in addition, that AOP participants who become apprentices and remain with the program show significant improvement in employment and earnings compared to their prior history and when compared with control groups drawn from different population types. Moreover, AOP appears to be affecting significantly the accessions of minorities to all registered apprenticeship programs (DOL, 1976).

Law Enforcement Assistance Administration Programs*

The Office of Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention supports two major programs which are relevant to the youth transition issue: the Juvenile Delinquency Prevention Program and the Diversion of Youth from the Juvenile Justice System Program. The objective of the Prevention Program is to:

> develop and implement new approaches, techniques, and methods to prevent juvenile delinquency where youth are in greatest danger of becoming delinquent through improving the abilities of not-for-profit private youth-serving agencies and organizations to implement programs which increase or expand social, cultural, educational, vocational, recreational and health services for youth (LEAA, 1976b, p.59).

"Positive youth development" is the approach underlying LEAA efforts to prevent delinquency. This can be defined as the "cultivation (in youth) of the sense of competence, the sense of belongingness, and the sense of usefulness"(LEAA, 1976b, p. 7). To achieve this goal, a variety of direct services is to be provided youth at high risk of delinquency. These services focus on improving the coping skills and self-concept of adolescents and on providing youth with marketable skills and increased opportunity in society.

The Diversion Program is oriented to serve those who have been apprehended by the police in the commission of a status offense or a felony. The purpose of this program is to design and implement demonstration projects which develop and test effective means of diverting juveniles from involvement with the traditional juvenile justice system at the critical points of penetration and to determine the significance of providing effective and coordinated services to a portion of those youth diverted. The design of the Diversion Program is based on recent research that indicated that most youngsters engage in at least occasional acts of delinquency and that most of these "hidden delinquents" grow out of lawbreaking behavior without receiving any ministrations from the juvenile justice system (LEAA, 1976a, p. 2). Moreover, recent studies indicate that community influences and institutional factors (such as school experience and lack of work opportunities) play a much larger role in fostering delinquency than had previously been thought.

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* This summary has been drawn largely from two sources; Programs to Prevent Juvenile Delinquency, Office of Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention, LEAA, U.S. Department of Justice, November 1976; and Diversion of Youth from the Juvenile Justice System, Office of Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention, LEAA, U.S. Department of Justice, April 1976.

As a result of these findings, new and more appropriate strategies are being sought to deal with those youth who have been apprehended by the police. Evaluations of "traditional treatment models" - recreation, individual and group counseling, social casework, use of detached workers - have consistently shown that these methods are not effective in the treatment of delinquency (LEAA, 1976a, p. 12). In fact, there appears to be "no convincing evidence that intervention into the lives of delinquent youngsters will turn out to be more effective than policies of minimal interference" (LEAA, 1976a, p. 12).

The current LEAA approach is focused on expanding social roles for youth (including work opportunities) and increasing their sense of self-worth. Diversion programs must not only remove youth from the juvenile justice system, they must also provide positive life experiences that will lead to meaningful and viable roles for youth.

A major purpose of this program is to test the assumption that diversion from the juvenile justice system and the provision of positive experiences and services to youth will reduce delinquency. Although some research has been conducted in this area, "no firm statements are in order regarding the impact of diversion on juveniles" (LEAA, 1976a, p. 14). This situation appears to apply to LEAA's Prevention Programs as well. "Virtually no prevention program has been able to document its impact on juvenile crime" (LEAA, 1976b, p. 5). All that can be said is that local programs have been providing services that fill important gaps in the lives of youth - gaps that are highly correlated with delinquency.

Armed Forces Training

The Department of Defense annually provides initial and advanced training to over one-half million men and women throughout the armed services. Training is provided in 237 career or occupational fields, many of which are related to or comparable with civilian jobs. The armed forces have long been leaders in developing and implementing modern training techniques. Courses are practical and stress hands-on instruction rather than theory. Self-paced instruction and performance testing are essential parts of the instructional procedure in many courses. After graduating from skill courses, the trainee receives additional training on the job and continues developing skills by actual work experience (Searcy, 1973).

While the Department of Defense conducts extensive training in relation to the manpower needs of the different armed services, very little of this training is intentionally structured to assist a person in the transition to employment after separation from military service. Certain benefits, such as educational assistance under the GI Bill, veterans' preference in the civil service, and the services of the Veterans' Administration are relied upon to assist in the transition to civilian life and employment.

NMI has found no evaluations of the few, relatively small-scale programs that engage in training for post-service employment.

Private Sector Initiatives

As expressed in the report on the 1976 Conference on Youth Career Development, sponsored by the Department of Commerce, the private sector has a particular responsibility to help resolve problems and increase opportunities for youth career development for the following reasons:

- The private sector is the major "user" of workers; more than two out of three American jobs exist in the private sector.
- The rapid and accelerating rate of technological change in the workplace makes it even more essential that our workforce be prepared to work and adaptable to changing job requirements.
- The increasing rate of capital investment per job makes it increasingly essential that workers be skilled and productive.
- The problems of under- and over-education are pointed to as major causes of worker alienation, with its significant costs to persons, productivity and society (DOC, 1976).

The report goes on to state that the private sector can help youth prepare for the school-to-work transition by acting collaboratively with youth-related agencies in areas such as:

- assisting in the formulation of career education policy
- providing observation opportunities and work experience for students, teachers, and counselors
- participating in design of career-relevant curricula
- developing support for career education.

While there are many examples of private sector involvement in youth transition efforts, few substantive evaluations of these efforts have been conducted. We have included those available evaluations most relevant to this study as well as a sample of the kinds of programs currently on-going that may bear closer examination and evaluation.

THE JOB OPPORTUNITIES IN THE BUSINESS SECTOR PROGRAM: The JOBS program has been built on a commitment by the business community in 50 cities in 1968,and more recently made nation-wide, to hire and train the hard-core disadvantaged unemployed. The program is intended to:

- enable contracting companies to provide immediate employment at regular wages for the hard-core unemployed workers identified by the government, coupled with training and supportive services;
- provide payments to companies to cover the extra cost of furnishing basic education, transportation services, corrective health services, counseling, etc;
- provide employment for persons who would be less qualified than those usually hired by the contracting employer. These persons would need more training than the typical employee;
- emphasize upgrading present employees caught in low-wage dead-end jobs to higher-level positions in addition to hiring unskilled disadvantaged workers for entry-level jobs.

The National Alliance of Businessmen has developed an organization of ten regional offices in the cities which have DOL Regional Manpower Administrator's offices, and city offices (Metros) in 127 cities. The NAB carries out its program through four national departments: Operations; Job Procurement and Job Placement; Recruiting and Government Programs; and Public Relations. The function of each Metro is to contact and persuade companies to provide jobs for the disadvantaged; work with local public and private organizations to identify and recruit disadvantaged persons to fill these jobs; expedite contracts so companies may receive the government subsidies for training programs; and work with companies to provide training programs for supervisory personnel that will improve retention rates.

The Job Opportunities in the Business Sector Program, An Evaluation of Impact in Ten Standard Metropolitan Statistical Areas, Greenleigh Associates, Inc., June 1970.

Nature of Study

The purpose of this study was to provide an assessment of the economic, social, and psychological impact of the JOBS program on trainees, terminees, employer-related public manpower agencies, employer associations, unions, the general community, and the target community. Included were all National Alliance of Businessmen (NAB) JOBS contract employer activities, but not the noncontract employers nor those aspects of the JOBS program not specifically related to Manpower Administration (MA) contracts, in the following 10 Standard Metropolitan Statistical Areas (SMSA): Atlanta, Baltimore, Dayton, Detroit, Houston, Jersey City, Miami, Phoenix, Tulsa, and San Diego.

The principal approach was a descriptive-analytical study of the JOBS program during its actual operations over a nine-month period during which the five field analysts spent approximately four and one-half months in each of the 10 SMSAs. After a week of special training and orientation to the study and its methodology, the five field analysts were provided with specially devised research instruments to facilitate the systematic collection of data and information at a number of levels. The fact that the NAB-Metro (local NAB organization) and contract programs in each SMSA were structured differently and were at different stages of development or reorganization made it possible to observe directly almost all elements of the employer program.

Findings

The JOBS program in the ten SMSAs has had little impact upon the statistical numbers of the unemployed. Any reduction in unemployment has occurred because of factors outside of the JOBS program.

> In the great majority of cases, JOBS trainees enter the program in occupations that place little emphasis on their interaction with either data or people. In approximately 60% of the cases, they require some degree of understanding of industrial tools.
>
> In most SMSA's, the jobs offered were low-level dead-end jobs that had little positive correlation to the skill shortages reported by industries.
>
> The program had positive economic and personal effects on trainees who stayed with the program. When interviewed, most trainees felt they were able to meet normal living expenses and that family life was improved since participation in the program.
>
> Retention rate of JOBS employees was highest (57%) in the service, transportation, and finance industries. However, only 10% of the jobs made available in the JOBS program were in these categories.
>
> In companies providing good job coaching and supervisory and human relations training, the retention rates among trainees were almost always far above the national average.
>
> An appreciable number of local employer groups have been sensitized to the needs of disadvantaged youth through the JOBS program.
>
> The JOBS program has not developed effective linkages with other manpower programs, educational systems, and health and social welfare organizations. The program, overall, has not developed the capability to provide effectively the full range of support services needed by trainees.

The authors conclude:

> that the JOBS program should be continued as a federally assisted manpower program. However, while its concept and design enabled it to function with some success, the study disclosed a number of administrative and operational weaknesses which should be improved. On the positive side, JOBS has demonstrated a viable role for business in manpower training. In addition, disadvantaged unemployed and underemployed persons have been elevated above poverty-income levels, families of trainees involved in the program have benefited, and other public manpower programs have increased their role and have begun to provide additional services to meet the needs of the disadvantaged unemployed and underemployed. On the other hand, the JOBS program has developed little local support except among those members of the business community who are directly involved. The successful continuation

> and expansion of JOBS will require a broader base of local support both in the business community and among those who are in a position to influence the workers among the hard-core unemployed to enroll in the JOBS program.

THE MEMPHIS VOLUNTEER PLACEMENT PROGRAM: The Memphis Volunteer Placement Program (MVPP) was established in 1968 when Memphis, as well as many other communities around the United States, was experiencing civil disturbances.* Two local businessmen and a high school counselor determined that the businessmen - among others in the community - had special resources that could be of vital help to the guidance department of an inner city school. Thus, MVPP was developed as a counseling program operated by volunteers from the community to assist high school students with career planning. In the last eight years, MVPP has become a vital and vigorous effort in Memphis. The volunteer counseling program now engages 110 community volunteers in the one-to-one and group counseling of more than 1,000 high school students on general career planning. Nearly 4,500 graduating seniors are provided guidance in preparing themselves for finding employment. MVPP has produced, in cooperation with the Board of Education, a vocational guidebook entitled "Start Getting That Job Now." It also conducts a Jobs Readiness Training Program in conjunction with the Memphis Employers Merit Employment Program, a company-sponsored program to promote non-discriminatory employment. Last year, some 170 volunteers from business, industry, labor, and local government were directly involved in the job readiness sessions conducted in 17 of the 30 city high schools.

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* The following descriptions are taken from U.S. DOC, Agenda for Action, October 7, 1976.

These and other MVPP programs have received the enthusiastic support of the Memphis Board of Education. The Board furnishes one of the four paid staff members and contributes about one-sixth of MVPP's budget. The City Council provides two-thirds of the budget; the remaining sixth comes from organizations and individuals.

DENVER'S TECHNICAL ADVISOR PROGRAM: Denver's Technical Advisor Program grew out of an idea conceived at Western Electric. The Western Electric community relations director, observing the discrepancy between what graduating students knew about electronics and the skills Western Electric needed, sought to provide local students with increased career awareness. In the school year 1971-72, Western Electric sent two electronics technicians to local high schools to describe their jobs and the skills needed for those jobs. These technicians also offered to serve as a resource for the teacher, supplementing the curriculum with demonstrations of new equipment and films on current innovations.

As more people became aware of these activities and as dialogue increased between the private sector and those in the education process, the effort expanded. With support and approval from the Denver Public Schools, representatives from Western Electric asked the Denver Chamber of Commerce to sponsor the program. The Chamber agreed, and shortly thereafter five additional Denver corporations offered advisors. In 1975-76, fourteen local industries offered advisors to participate in eight Denver schools in the areas of business and office skills, accounting, drafting, machine shop, electronics,and construction.

The main purpose of the Technical Advisor Program is to supplement and enrich the high school curriculum by the use of advisors donating one to two hours per week during the school year. While most of the advisor's time in the classroom is devoted to expanding the students' career awareness, the advisor can also discuss with students their goals and ambitions and eliminate some of the anxieties the students encounter when making the transition from high school to a career or college.

Coordination for the entire program is provided by the Denver Chamber of Commerce. An Advisory Board acts as liaison between industry representatives and the School Board.

EDUCATORS-IN-INDUSTRY: Since 1959, General Electric has been involved in helping educators upgrade their information about the world of work, vocational guidance,and career development.

GE's activities started with sponsorship of Summer Guidance Programs at selected universities. These six-week programs combined professional instruction in counseling skills with first-hand experience in GE plants and other local industries. Over the past 17 years, there have been approximately 2,000 alumni of the program who are better prepared to counsel young people in career development. All programs provide for graduate level credit, with additional credits available for implementation of plans developed during the summer.

In 1971, several GE plant locations took the initiative to better expose their community's educators to the industrial environment and to inform them of careers currently available in industry through orientation in local plants.

Although GE was encouraged by the success of the Summer Guidance Program and other local efforts, they felt that more help was needed from other private sector organizations. In 1972, GE developed a model called Educator-In-Industry Programs to be implemented at the local plant by GE representatives in cooperation with nearby colleges or universities. Following a needs assessment of the career guidance activities of the community, the GE representative tries to develop a community-supported advisory council to help plan a program targeted at counselors.

The program format is a series of two- to three-hour sessions conducted late in the afternoon for 12 to 15 consecutive weeks. These formal sessions are supplemented by plant visits and "shadow" experiences. The specific subject areas covered vary with the employment markets in each locale. These programs also carry graduate level credit available through the cooperating institutions.

Participating educators say the results at both the summer institutes and in-service programs have proved to be excellent. Moreover, GE officials note that these programs have visible results in the GE plant communities where they occur. With the exposure to the world of work that they have obtained, participating educators provide correct and up-to-date information about careers in commerce and industry to students who have traditionally received less help than their college-bound peers. Many of these young people are helped to identify careers in which immediate jobs are available.

EXPLORATORY WORK EXPERIENCE EDUCATION (EWEE): The Exploratory Work Experience Education Program sponsored by Security Pacific National Bank is an effort to assist the career development of youth in California. Students 16 years of age or older who have expressed interest in banking as a possible career choice are selected by their schools to participate in this program; these students are chosen from both inner city and suburban schools--wherever a Security Pacific branch is located.

On-the-job observation and limited participation in bank operations provide students with the chance to learn what duties a computer clerk, a teller, or a new accounts clerk performs. Seven such positions are observed, each for four hours during a single week. In total, with an initial two-hour orientation, each student receives 30 hours of actual work observation. At this point, the student either elects to leave the program or continue in a work area in which he/she expresses a career interest.

For those continuing, a period of up to 30 hours may be spent in their selected work area. (The State's Industrial Welfare Commission has set the maximum of 30 hours.) If a student chooses, he/she can continue for an additional 30 hours - up to a total of 90 hours in the program - but only if they rotate to a new area of specialty.

Formal guidelines for this program have been worked out in great detail and with collaboration with both schools and organized labor. The guidelines specify all arrangements, including the restriction that students receive no compensation for their participation. For students who desire employment at the completion of the program, a referral is made to the bank's nearest recruitment office.

NATIONAL ALLIANCE OF BUSINESSMEN YOUTH PROGRAM: The NAB Youth Program consists of four components: Youth Motivation, Career Guidance, College/Industry Relations and Youth Employment.[*] Each component is designed to help needy, in-school youngsters acquire necessary attitudes and skills that will permit them to qualify for private sector employment. An essential element in each Youth Program component is employer participation and involvement. Employers are in the best position to inform educators about the basic skill requirements for entry into the job market. And they can offer students access to business facilities where they can learn about "work" and "jobs" and gain on-the-job experience, especially during summer vacations.

The Alliance partners - business, education, labor,and government - have placed major emphasis on industry-education cooperation at the Metro level. The basic effort of the Alliance has been to persuade business executives to take a more active interest in the operations of local school systems and to urge educators to familiarize themselves with the local employment market and the companies that make up that market.

Youth Employment. The NAB Summer Jobs program has enabled more than 1.7 million needy youngsters to gain work experience and income during the last nine years. The program is designed to give needy students exposure to the basic rules of the work place. They gain experience in a work environment where profit is the basic objective of the employer.

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[*] The following description is taken largely from materials provided by the National Alliance of Businessmen.

Students thus exposed should be equipped to better understand the opportunities that exist in the labor market as well as employer expectations regarding worker skills and experience.

In the summer of 1976, NAB Metro offices identified 210,205 jobs provided needy youth by private employers. These summer jobs involved a minimum of 120 hours of work at or above the federal minimum wage.

The Business Management Fellowship Program, a special emphasis program sponsored by the NAB, the National Football League, and the Department of Commerce, produced summer fellowship positions for 903 high-achiever, needy students in 21 Metro areas.

Youth Motivation Program. The NAB Youth Motivation program is directed to both high school and college students who need positive success images with which to identify. Since 1969, Alliance-sponsored Youth Motivation programs have been conducted in more than 90 major cities in the United States and on more than 80 developing college campuses. During Fiscal Year 1976, Youth Motivation programs were conducted in 55 cities and involved nearly 830,000 high school and college students and 5,565 business "living witnesses."

Career Guidance Institutes. Since assuming responsibility for the Career Guidance Institutes (CGI) program in 1969, the Alliance has underwritten the administrative costs of 437 locally sponsored institutes. The CGI program has enabled more than 15,000 educators, primarily teachers and counselors, to gain specific information about the local job market and local employers who generally hire high school graduates. During Fiscal Year 1976, NAB conducted 80 institutes serving 2,840 educational participants.

Nineteen institutes which involved 610 educators were conducted in the Transitional Quarter. Since 1970, more than 4,000 businessmen and women have participated in CGI's as speakers, guest lecturers, and resource persons.

College/Industry Relations. NAB's College/Industry Relations program has contributed substantially to upgrading the educational programs offered by developing colleges, particularly the predominantly minority colleges which educate nearly half of the nation's black college students. During Fiscal Year 1976, 64 developing schools were "clustered" with more than 500 companies and 21 established institutions of higher learning.

Non-Profit Initiatives

It is widely recognized that many of the most effective initiatives aimed at providing youth with training, work experience, and employment skills have been implemented through a national and local network of community-based groups. Ranging from nationally-affiliated organizations such as the National Urban League, Opportunities Industrialization Corporations, and SER to locally-based groups such as Pride, Incorporated, and Students, Incorporated, these diverse organizations sponsor a variety of programs aimed at easing the transition from school to work, particularly for those youth suffering the greatest disadvantages in making the transition. Most of the programs sponsored by these groups are supported at least in part by federal, state,or local funds, with the bulk provided out of CETA allocations.

The following descriptions provide a sample of programs offered by non-profit sponsors, including national organizations and local community groups. Although few formal evaluations have been conducted of many of these efforts, we have included summaries of those evaluations available to us.

THE CAREER INTERN PROJECT: Developed by the Opportunities Industrialization Corporation of America, Inc., in Philadelphia, Pennsylvania, the Career Intern Program is an alternative high school for 16-to-21 year olds who are dropouts or are in serious risk of dropping out before high school graduation. The goals of the program are to assist these students to complete high school, aquire occupational knowledge, plan for a career,and improve basic academic skills.

The first phase of the program (21 weeks) focuses on classes in the basic academic disciplines during which each discipline is related to occupations. Phase II provides students with from two to four job experiences and with access to more coursework which integrates academic and career information. In Phase III, students are assisted in negotiating the transition from school to work or to more advanced education. Work-bound students are counseled for six months after leaving the program; college-bound students for a year.

Five hundred and two students were served by the program from October 1972 to December 1975. Most were black inner-city youth in academic trouble; almost one-half had already dropped out and the rest were identified as potential dropouts by their counselors.

Executive Summary, The Career Intern Project: Final Report, Richard A. Gibboney Associates, Inc., Washington, D.C., National Institute of Education, 1971.

Nature of Study

An experimental test of the effectiveness of the program compared the retention and graduation rates of 286 young people who entered CIP between January 1974 and September 1975 with a control group chosen at random from CIP applicants.

Findings

By December 1975, 67 percent of the CIP students but only 13 percent of the controls had graduated or were attending school. About 44 percent of the CIP interns had received high school diplomas and 23 percent were still at their studies, while only 7 percent of the control students had diplomas and only 6 percent were in school.

Changes in reading and mathematics achievement and in career development as measured by standardized tests, interviews, unobtrusive indicators, and ethnographic studies also suggested

> benefits of CIP participation. While final levels of achievement on reading and mathematics left room for improvement (for example, 58 percent of the interns compared to 69 percent of the controls were reading at or below the seventh grade level) and while some of the young people were still not fully dependable and self-starting, the CIP interns were showing very high levels of career planning and development skills.
>
> Seventy-seven of these graduates were followed up in Fall 1975, after having been out of CIP for six months to a year. Of these, 71 percent of the CIP interns were employed, in college or in technical school, compared to 39 percent of the controls. Not a single young man who was in the control group had enrolled in college or technical school, in contrast to 29 percent of the male interns. Thus, one of the biggest differences CIP made was to enable youth to continue their education.

VOCATIONAL EXPLORATION PROGRAM:* The Vocational Exploration Program (VEP) was a pilot educational program for disadvantaged youth which allowed them to explore various career options in the private sector during the summer of 1976. An expanded VEP project was conducted in the summer of 1977. VEP was co-sponsored by the National Alliance of Businessmen (NAB) and the AFL-CIO Human Resources Development Institute (HRDI).

The program was funded by the Employment and Training Administration of the U.S. Department of Labor with Title III Comprehensive Employment and Training Act monies. The objective of VEP was to expose disadvantaged youth to specific jobs found in the private sector and educate them to the realities of the world of work. This exposure was an educational experience for the VEP youth, enabling them to become acquainted with occupations and activities in the private sector to which they normally would not have been exposed in order to better plan their own career goals.

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* The description which follows is reproduced from materials provided by the National Alliance of Businessmen.

A total of two hundred and thirty six CETA-certified youth between the ages of 15 and 21 participated in the 1976 program. The majority of these students were entering their junior or senior year in high school although the education level ranged from eighth grade to college students. Almost two-thirds (149) were black, with forty-three white, forty-three Hispanic surnamed, and one Native American.

VEP youth were paid between $2.30 and $2.90 per hour. They were also eligible for a maximum of $2.00 per day for transportation. Employers were reimbursed at $2.90 per hour. The employer could use the 60¢ differential between the minimum hourly wage and the amount of the reimbursement for taxes, fringe benefits, coordinators' salaries, overhead,or additional youth salaries.

Eligible employers for VEP were defined as companies, trade organizations,or labor organizations. The employer was responsible for all project costs through the duration of the program and was reimbursed at the conclusion of the program after submission and approval of a request for payment and backup documentation.

VEP exposed the enrollees to wide range of industries and businesses. Among the participating employers were data processing firms, furniture manufacturers, electronics firms, paper product plants, radio stations, banks, health clinics, hospitals, retail stores, insurance companies, union offices, labor studies centers, engineering firms,and others.

An employer was required to structure a program in which the youth were introduced to various aspects of the free enterprise system and of organized labor. Programs used a combination of educational techniques. Youth explored the major functions of the employer's operations, attended classroom sessions, and made field visits. The VEP youth were prohibited from performing "hands on" work which would result in the production of profitable goods and services.

The 1977 Vocational Exploration Program - A Lesson in Work Education, A Report by Irving Lipkowitz, Trustee and chairperson of the Work-Education Task Force, Public Education Association, New York, N.Y., December 8, 1977.

Nature of Study

This short article reports on student, parent, and VEP coordinator evaluations of the 1977 New York City VEP program. The New York City program was primarily a 4-week program (July 11 - August 5) for 120 students. There was also an 8-week program (July 5 - August 26) for another 10 student unit. The 10 student unit was allowed to perform "actual work" at the work site, whereas the other participants (in the 4-week program) were limited to observation.

Findings

Following completion of the program, the students, their parents, and the program coordinators expressed their views through reports and questionnaires. All three groups expressed a preponderantly favorable reaction to the program. However, students, parents, and coordinators agreed that the most serious shortcoming of the 4-week program was too little actual work.

The report concludes: "the 1977 New York VEP undoubtedly contributed to the work education of the students who participated in it. It also demonstrated that this contribution would have been much greater if all the 130 VEP students were given the opportunity to do real work, instead of it being available to only ten of them."

THE LABOR EDUCATION ADVANCEMENT PROGRAM*: The Labor Education Advancement Program (LEAP) was the National Urban League's attempt to neutralize the racial barriers existing within the building and construction trades. Its primary goal was to bring minorities into high-paying union jobs. Since its inception, LEAP has both diversified its efforts and expanded its goals.

In 1967, LEAP negotiated its first contract with the Department of Labor. The program was funded at $57,000 and was assigned the goal of recruiting twenty minority youths in Baltimore, Maryland, a goal which LEAP met and surpassed within three months.

Today, LEAP is operating with a $5.7 million Department of Labor contract to recruit and place 3,547 minority men and women in high-paying, permanent employment within a variety of skilled industries.

LEAP placements have earned an estimated $496 million in income over the past ten years and have paid over $124 million in taxes. Thus, for every dollar the government has invested in LEAP, it has received $4.60 in return.

The Labor Education Advancement Program includes the Apprenticeship Outreach Program which recruits and places minority youth between the ages of eighteen and twenty-six in the construction and industrial trades.

During the 1975-1976 contract period (ending October 31, 1976) LEAP placed 2,560 apprentices in forty-three LEAP cities across the country. Under its most recent Department of Labor contract, LEAP has expanded to now include 45 cities nationwide. Cumulative placements for all LEAP contracts were 22,971 at last count.

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* The following description is reproduced from materials provided by the National Urban League.

In addition to recruitment, LEAP offers applicants a full range of services that include tutoring for union entry examinations, job counseling, follow-up services, and counseling for the recruit's family in the structure and goals of apprenticeship.

Journeyman Advanced Training Program (JATP) recruits and places experienced, above-apprenticeship-age workers in permanent employment slots. Shortly after LEAP began placing apprentices, it discovered that there were many older workers with construction or other industrial experience who had never joined a union. LEAP started a program to help these workers pass union examinations, receive their union cards, and become either Journeymen or Advanced Trainees. More than 2,300 individuals have been placed through LEAP's Journeyman Advanced Training Program.

The Women's Component recruits, counsels,and places women in a variety of high-paying jobs traditionally held by men. In response to the scarcity of women in apprenticeship programs and other nontraditional occupations, LEAP, in 1974, began its Women's Component. This special arm of Apprenticeship Outreach began in three pilot cities and gradually expanded to include some twenty cities nationwide. Bringing a special sensitivity to both the demands of employers and the needs of clients, the Women's Component has successfully placed more than 2,300 women in non-traditional jobs.

As part of its ongoing program in recruitment, staff members participate in special workshops and seminars relating to recruitment and placement of women in newly-entered job markets.

The Spanish Component provides a full range of LEAP services to Spanish-speaking workers. LEAP instituted this component in 1974 because the employment and training needs of the Spanish-speaking community were not being adequately met. The component currently operates programs in Miami, Florida, and in St. Paul, Minnesota.

PROJECT 70001: Founded by the Thom McAn Shoe Company, Project 70001 is now a national organization promoted by the Distributive Education Clubs of America (DECA), which provides technical assistance and other services to local 70001 programs. 70001 Ltd., a private non-profit corporation headquartered in Newark, Delaware, currently has 16 programs operating in nine states. A recent contract with the National Programs Division of the U.S. Department of Labor has launched a major national expansion with a goal of at least 50 programs and 12,500 members over the next four years.

The typical 70001 program is usually funded from CETA or vocational monies through a local educational institution, although other agencies such as CAPs can also operate a program. 70001 Ltd. then subcontracts with the sponsoring/operating agency to franchise the use of the 70001 Ltd. name, instructional materials, training services, youth organization activities, etc. 70001 Ltd., in essence, serves as the "quality control" agent to ensure delivery of the 70001 concept supported by the nation's businesses.

The target population of the 70001 program is school dropouts, or "early leavers." Enrollees receive full-time work experience jobs in the distributive education field and attend evening classes for approximately six hours each week. The classroom work consists solely of General Equivalency Development (GED) instruction. The classwork is carefully related to the job experience, and although students receive no special training on the job, written agreements with employers stipulate that the 70001 enrollees must receive "added concern" and that employers must prepare written evaluations of the enrollees' work.

The typical young person served by 70001 is in the 16-22 age bracket and is an unemployed school dropout. Many of them are economically, socially,or educationally disadvantaged. Ninety percent are receiving some kind of public assistance before joining 70001.

Employers are impressed by such factors as the high retention rate of 70001 employees. During the three-year pilot program, 71% of the youth were still on the job after a year or more. As of December 1, 1975, 50% of all 70001 associates had surpassed the CETA "permanent placement" regulation of 90 consecutive days of employment.

A recent report on 70001 programs in Missouri noted a similar 71% retention rate in the 18-month-old St. Louis program, while statewide, 65% of the 70001 members achieved the CETA "permanent placement" category. In addition, the report pointed out that nearly nine out of ten of the 257 associates were working or preparing for employment. A total of 114, or 44%, were on the job, and 121 (47%) were in pre-employment orientation.

At the end of 1976, 70001 Ltd. conducted a follow-up survey of graduates from the program. The study, completed in February of 1977, involved thirteen 70001 programs in five states. Of 430 graduates polled, 227 -- or 53% -- responded. Some of the findings of the study include:

- 3 out of 4 -- 75% -- of the graduates were employed or furthering their education.
- Of those working, 9 out of 10 -- 91% -- were in full-time jobs.
- Full-time wages averaged $3.13 per hour; part-time $2.41 per hour.
- Only 15% of those available for employment were without jobs, and many of them had been employed since graduation.
- 30% were involved in some form of higher education, ranging from courses in the military to four-year colleges.
- Half of the graduates in higher education were attending four-year, junior or vocational colleges, while 12% were in trade or business schools.
- 7 out of 10 (70%) of the graduates rated the value of their involvement with 70001 as excellent or very good.
- 73% rated as excellent or very good the youth organization's effectiveness in helping them learn to work with others.
- 63% of those working were involved in occupations within the field of retailing and distribution.

SECTION 3
LINKS BETWEEN PEOPLE AND JOBS

Placement Services

Several types of job placement services are available to assist youth in their search for work. School-based placement programs provide employment-related services within the public high and postsecondary schools. Public placement offices are part of a national Employment Service network of state and local offices designed to match youth and adults to jobs. Cooperative Employment Service-school placement programs are services within the schools which combine the technical facilities and placement resources of the Employment Service with the school's career education and counseling programs. Some community-based organizations offer youth work experience, on-the-job training,or direct placement opportunities.

SCHOOL-BASED PLACEMENT: School-based job placement programs are employment-related services within secondary and two-year postsecondary public schools available to students -- college-bound or not -- who desire or can benefit by work experience. A number of events led to the emergence of school-based placement, a service which might be considered as a natural extension of the school's formal education program for youth. These forces were identified in an 18 month study, "School-to-Work Project" (1974) conducted by the National Advisory

Council on Vocational Education, and include:

- a continued high rate of youth unemployment;
- implementation of career education in the schools, and a need for corresponding job placement opportunities;
- a drop in the proportion of high school graduates immediately entering postsecondary institutions;
- recognition of the need for an appropriately skilled labor force;
- need for an expansion of school relations with employers in the community to create jobs for youth;
- need for public school accountability for the appropriateness and value of its education; and
- recognition of school personnel as best equipped to handle the special problems of school age youth desiring to enter the labor market.

School-based placement services have increased significantly in recent years. In the National Center for Education Statistics' survey of job placement programs, 5,161 (44%) of the 11,600 school districts with grades 11 and 12 represented in this study reported formal job placement programs in the fall of 1976. Fifty-eight percent had been in existence only five years or less. About 29% of the districts had programs that were three or fewer years old. These placement programs were more likely to exist in large rather than small school districts. The survey identified that 71% of all districts of 25,000 or more students have placement programs, compared to 35% of the small districts with less than 2,500 students (NCES, 1976).

Recent legislation has strengthened the imperatives and rationale for job placement programs. In two states, bills have been passed requiring all secondary schools to establish job placement programs for non-college bound students.

The 1976 Education Amendments to the Vocational Education Act of 1963 may add impetus to the establishment of school-based placement services. The amendments permit localities to use vocational education monies for "placement services for students whose needs cannot be met by other programs."

The transition from youth to adulthood involves the process of identifying and securing satisfying work. A school-based placement program can assist youth in this endeavor. Students, aged 14 years and up, including early school leavers, physically and mentally handicapped youth, and graduates up to one year after leaving school, are served by school-based programs. In 1976, almost all (92%) school-based programs offered "referral to job openings," and 87% offered "instruction in job search techniques" (DHEW, 1976). Other services reported by school districts were: teaching techniques in test-taking and completing job applications, providing transportation to interviews, giving instruction in employability skills,and providing an instruction materials library.

School-based programs assist youth in finding suitable placements. The educational significance, or degree to which a student can learn from the work experience, is given careful consideration by placement staff. Good placements match the individual student's interests, abilities,and aptitudes and contribute to his/her educational growth and career development.

The number and quality of job placements available to students depend upon the program's relationship with the surrounding community. Effective school-based programs continually seek to expand and strengthen the linkages between the school and private and public sectors of the community. Community involvement includes the support of industry, business, public institutions, cultural, civic, and social organizations, government agencies, armed services, and labor unions.

Follow-up of placements provides the schools with feedback on the adequacies and weaknesses of their career education and employment-related services. Statistical and analytical reports on student success and failure in the work world offer the schools an opportunity for program redesign or development.

The services of a school-based placement program are often delivered by existing school personnel. The placement staff typically consists of guidance counselors or cooperative education and work-study coordinators already performing similar or related job placement functions. Figures supplied from a survey of job placement programs reported that about half (54%) of the districts sampled were using their own staff to provide placement services. Another 38% of the placement programs were utilizing local Employment Service staff as well; the remainder had arrangements using local Employment Service personnel only.

Despite the wealth of information and service that a school-based job placement program can provide, use of these services by students is limited. Of 5,161 districts surveyed with placement programs, about two-thirds estimated that fewer than 40% of their students and school leavers made use of their services each year. In fact, half of the districts reported less than 30% use.

The future of school-based placement programs is unclear, in part because the funds and resources available to schools to establish new programs are limited. The placement needs of youth are complex and cannot be met with traditional methods and approaches. An already overburdened school system may not be able to assume this responsibility.

Additional evidence of resistance to school-based placement is the lack of employer cooperation. An inflated economy and a laid-off workforce have contributed to employer and labor union reluctance to provide support to the schools and to the recruitment of new youthful employees. Lack of this essential cooperation between the schools and the employing community greatly diminishes the effectiveness of a school-based placement program.

Evaluation of Three School-Based Job Placement Projects in Pennsylvania

by Merrill L. Meehan and Stephen J. Franchak, Pennsylvania Department of Education, February 1976.

Nature of Study

> The effectiveness of a school-based job placement service model operating in three area vocational schools was evaluated by examining the activities of the job placement specialists relating to: (1) placing students in jobs; (2) graduate follow-up; (3) preparing youth with employability skills; (4) cooperative relationships among school, the Bureau of Employment Security (BES) and industry; (5) attitudes of students, graduates, parents, AVTS administrators and faculty, employers, community agencies and BES personnel toward the job placement project; (6) awareness of the Computer Assisted Placement Services (CAPS) project; and (7) cost analysis of job placement services.

Findings

It was found that the job placement specialists did conduct placement service activities in line with the project model. It was proposed that the carrying out of certain activities would increase the probability of placing graduates in jobs commensurate with their ability and interests. Specifically, the three schools consistently had higher placement percentages and lower unemployment rates than any comparable group located in the literature review. Also, seniors and recent graduates from the three pilot schools used the job placement services more than any other comparable research group used their own services.

Addressing the question of how effective were the projects in preparing students in jobs related to training, two significant results are offered. One, approximately 75% of the placement specialists' contact time with students was directly related to the issue of securing job related placements. Further, the job placement project schools reported 68% of their 1974 graduates were placed in curriculum related jobs, a 10-point advantage over groups studied in the literature review. However, it should be noted that the investigators were cognizant of the many other variables, such as social, economic, educational, etc., which could have a significant effect on the placement of individuals in training related or unrelated jobs.

In assessing the effectiveness of the job placement services in establishing cooperative relationships with the local BES and industry, the specialists spent 31 per cent of their time at this activity. Moreover, the specialists did conduct the majority of the planned cooperative activities with the local BES office.

When a sample of 1974 graduates and 1975 seniors was asked to rate the job placement service on its performance in providing job placement information, 75% of those individuals rated the performance as good to excellent. Further, of the 1974 graduates who were asked if they used the services of the job placement specialists, 86% (45) said yes and 14% (12) said no. When selected local employers were asked if they used job placement services in hiring a student, 84% (71) said yes and 14% (12) said no. For those employers who answered yes, 96% (68) indicated that the job placement services were satisfactory and 3% (2) said they were unsatisfactory.

> The final question focusing on a cost analysis of the various job placement service components resulted in the following selected data. With respect to the time and project funds spent on various categorical work items, it was found that 7% was spent on employability skills training; 25% on communications with BES and industry; 26% on placement and follow-up services; 42% on general administrative activities; and 0.9% relating to nonjob placement duties.
>
> A major conclusion based upon the results of this study is that a formalized placement service can increase the probability of a student finding suitable employment over those schools that do not have such a service. Further, the students use such a service if it is available and they, along with their parents, employers and others, believe that the school should provide for those activities. Finally, better cooperation between the school and BES can result if there is a defined and formalized program. This can lead to effective job placement for the graduates upon leaving school.

Job Development Project, Cleveland, Ohio: The Job Development Project provides an employment-oriented program at the schools for work-bound graduates. The project's purpose is to assist youth's transition from school to work through the development of employment skills and habits. Project services also seek to strengthen ties between youth and local employers.

The program was started in 1966 under Title I of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act of 1965. Beginning in 1969-70, the program was funded through the Disadvantaged Pupil Program Fund (DPPF) of the State of Ohio. The program is presently operating in six Cleveland high schools. These schools have the highest percentage of youth from welfare families with some 99% of the students enrolled in the schools being black.

Program objectives are:

- to develop employment opportunities for students of inner city high schools;
- to improve school achievement of students by increasing motivation through increased employment opportunities;
- to establish an effective communication channel between the Cleveland Public Schools and the Cleveland business community; and
- to provide for close relationships between industrial practices and curricular programs.

The Job Development Project involves 1400-1500 students per year. The program is divided into two phases: job preparation and job placement.

Job preparation consists of weekly group sessions with job counselors, mock interviews, and meetings with resource people. Instruction is offered in filling out applications, taking job tests, and using proper dress and deportment for job interviews. Classes are held each week during regular class time or in concentrated block periods.

Job placement activities include student interviews by company representatives and Employment Service personnel. Staff programs are conducted to locate job opportunities for youth. More than 400 Cleveland companies have been involved since the program began.

Additional supportive services of the program include the Speaker Corps and the Advisory Committee. The Speaker Corps consists of recent graduates who share their experiences in the work world with students. The Advisory Board provides a mechanism for employers and school personnel to meet to discuss ways to strengthen school services while providing employers with better prepared students.

Case Studies in Practical Career Guidance, Number 9, Job Development Program, Cleveland Public Schools, Cleveland, Ohio, American Institutes for Research, June 1973.

Nature of Study

This short case study is part of a larger study which examines the practical career guidance, counseling, and placement which is provided to noncollege bound secondary level students.

Findings

The study cites the findings of two evaluations of the program conducted by the Cleveland school system. The results of these evaluations are summarized below:

1. In January 1973, a six-year evaluation study was conducted on potential earnings of the graduates of the inner city high schools participating in the Job Development Program. The reported potential earnings were $81,603,900 over a six year period. This figure is the product of the average yearly wages ($4,200) of the 5,393 students employed and the man-years of employment (19,425.5).

2. In August 1972, the Division of Research and Development of the Cleveland Public Schools reported that the Job Development Program placed 95% of the June 1972 graduates participating in the project. Other key findings were: (1) 31 companies participated in the Job Centers, enabling 663 seniors to be interviewed on an average of three times each; (2) 1.35 second interviews per senior were generated by the initial Job Center interviews; (3) communication and math skills were weaknesses of the graduates as indicated by employer-representative interview records; (4) approximately 520 students were taken on field trips to observe possible employment sites; and (5) the success of the Job Development Program has been nationally recognized and has generated requests for information from many communities.

THE EMPLOYMENT SERVICE(ES): The Employment Service is a federal-state system of free public employment offices, designed to match job-seekers to suitable employment and to assist employers in locating competent workers. The Wagner-Peyser Act of 1933 mandated the Department of Labor to establish a system of federal-state employment offices for all workers, including youth. Section (3) (a) states:

> It shall be the province and duty of the bureau to promote and develop a national system of employment offices for men, women and juniors who are legally qualified to engage in gainful occupations...

The Employment Service consists of a network of 2500 local offices in 50 states employing more than 42,000 workers at an annual cost of approximately three-quarters of a billion dollars. In fiscal year 1975, about 40% of workers placed through the Employment Service were under 22 years of age (CBO, 1976). Forty-one percent of the 1976 fiscal year placements were youth. In fiscal year 1976, 1,394,423 workers placed through the ES were under 22 years of age, compared to 1,972,634 placements 22 years and older (DOL, 1977). The ES places youth in permanent, part-time, summer, and vacation jobs.

Despite the availability of sufficient resources, the Employment Service's ability to serve youth is diminished by its own internal problems, which arise partly from an overloading of responsibility. Today, the Employment Service is involved in the administration of 22 laws, 17 Executive Orders, and 14 agreements with various federal agencies which provide for the performance of specific duties related to special target groups. Such groups include veterans, the handicapped, food stamp recipients, women, minorities,and youth. Besides being a labor exchange for these groups, the ES performs varied duties, such as assessing and recommending individuals for special skills training, alien employment certification, agricultural workers' housing inspection, and other enforcement and compliance activities. The ability of the ES to carry out these varied duties for all groups, while serving the special needs of youth, is limited.

The quality of the ES's job placement service is also under scrutiny. In June 17, 1976, testimony by the legislation division of the AFL-CIO, the ES placement record was attacked:

> GAO reported that only 3.1 million applicants, 17 percent of the 18.5 million total, were placed in jobs. More than half of these jobs were short-term jobs expected to last less than five months. As a result, many of these so-called "successful" job-seekers helped by the Employment Service got the doubtful pleasure of coming back to the Employment Service several times for help in finding a job (NACO, 1976).

Other criticisms describe the placements as menial, mediocre job opportunities.

The establishment of local Job Banks was the first step in planned state and nationwide linkages and eventual computerized job matching of applicants to job openings. A Job Bank system consists of the use by the Employment Service of a computer into which Job Orders are fed as they are received by local offices and the generation by that computer of printouts on a daily basis which list all current orders. Copies of the printouts are bound in a book or reproduced on microfilm for daily distribution to ES offices and cooperating community agencies. Certain employer information is suppressed, so that applicants must be channeled through Job Bank Control for referral for placement.

The three basic goals of Job Banks stated by the Secretary of Labor in March 1976 were:

1) to provide all interviewers of the Employment Service and cooperating agencies with information on all job openings given to those organizations in the metropolitan area;

2) to eliminate excessive and wasteful referrals of workers to employers; and

3) to eliminate excessive and wasteful job solicitation visits to employers.

An Evaluation of Results and Effectiveness of Job Banks, Volume I, prepared by Ultrasystems, Incorporated, for the U.S. Department of Labor, Manpower Administration, March 1972.

Nature of Study

An evaluation of the Job Banks component of Employment Service offices was conducted in 1971 by Ultrasystems based on a sample of fifteen offices in DOL Regions I through VII. Over one hundred Job Banks were functioning at the time.

Findings

Overall, the dissemination of Job Order Information was being carried out, with exceptions for orders withheld from the system (WIN, NAB, Veteran's preference). Also not included were jobs developed by community agencies.

Although the Job Bank concept increased the probability of unnecessary referrals due to wider dissemination of information, various local control methods and procedures seemed to have been developed to prevent this from happening.

There was no indication of limitation or elimination of competition among manpower agencies as a result of Job Bank system installation.

Referrals and placement and placement of disadvantaged jobseekers increased.

There was no indication of effect on planning or coordination of employer relations.

Management and supervisory control over volume and quality of order taking, selection, referral and verification of ES transactions improved qualitatively due to computer printouts. However, inappropriate data format, inadequate staff training and lack of sufficient staff time limited use of Job Banks for management purposes.

A source of current information was established about job opportunities for use in job market information, manpower planning, vocational education planning, etc.

There was no improved community acceptance of ES except where applicants had "independent access" to information.

Recruitment, Job Search and the United States Employment Service, Camil Associates, Inc., R&D Monograph 43, Volume I, U.S. Department of Labor, 1976.

Nature of Study

The objectives of the study included a description of:

Recruitment and job search activities during the last six months of 1974 and the role of the Employment Service (ES) in each activity.

Characteristics of job finders and employers who used and who did not use the Employment Service, and the reasons for use and non-use.

Use made of the Employment Service by employers and job seekers and the extent to which the ES satisfied recruitment and job search needs.

Alternative ES configurations and services, and their influence on either the degree to which the ES was used by employers and job finders or the degree to which the

ES satisfied recruitment and job search needs.

The report was based on a July-December 1974 survey of recruitment and job search in twenty representative cities with populations of from 100,000 to 250,000 which involved interviews of approximately 600 employers and 2,000 job seekers. Limitations to generalizing from the report were:

- Restriction to medium sized cities representing only 15 million Americans. Twenty of 97 such cities in U.S. were included.
- Exclusion of those unable to find work.
- Unusually high level of unemployment nationally during period of study.
- Exclusion of recruitment for government, domestic day labor, and agricultural employment.

Findings

During the study period the ES was consulted by about 25 percent of all employers and 28 percent of all job finders in the cities surveyed.

About two-thirds of all vacancies were filled through informal methods, such as direct application to employers, or consultation with friends, relatives,or business associates.

Only about one worker in seventeen was placed through the ES, which ranked second among formal placement methods. Newspapers ranked first among formal methods in use by employers and job seekers.

ES was used mainly by large, structured employers, not, as commonly perceived, by the small, marginal employer.

The 25 percent of employers using ES represented 36 percent of all job vacancies because of their size and their listing of most of their vacancies. Categories not listed were usually in the professional, technical, and managerial areas.

Employers using ES were generally representative of all types of employers but with a lower percentage of financial and construction employers and higher percentage of manufacturers.

Distribution of job categories listed was also generally representative, but with a slightly lower than average percentage of professional, technical, managerial, clerical, and sales categories and slightly higher percentage of service, machine trades,and bench mock orders.

Job seekers using ES were likewise similar to all job seekers, but with slightly lower than average percentage of persons with professional skills and slightly higher percentage with clerical and sales skills using ES. The proportion of clerical jobs listed thus was not in relation to clerical jobs sought.

ES was only one of several methods (usually four or five) used by both employers and job seekers.

Most ES users were "repeat" users, creating a stable market for ES services.

Penetration rates were not directly related to placement rates; office size had a direct influence on the penetration rates, but an inverse relationship to successful job matching.

Employers did not use ES due to no perceived need for its services rather than because of lack of knowledge or unfavorable news.

Most users, regardless of result of service, had a positive attitude toward ES staff and a negative view of long lines and lack of job opportunities.

ES activities were almost exclusively job referral related and did not include employability development activities, such as counseling and testing of job seekers, which were prevalent in the late 1960's.

Persons with a high school education were placed nearly twice as often as those with less than a ninth grade education due primarily to the fact that 45 percent of the former, in contrast to only 15 percent of the latter, were referred to employment.

Office variations may influence placement rates. The more successful offices were small, had satellites, and permitted only limited access to Job Banks.

The key to improved ES effectiveness appeared to be better job matching. Employers hired only about one referral in three and filled only one-third of their openings listed with ES. One-third of the job seekers did not keep referral appointments and one-fourth of those who did found the job already filled.

The Employment Service: An Institutional Analysis, The Urban Institute, R&D Monograph 51, Employment and Training Administration, U.S. Department of Labor, 1977.

Nature of Study

This study investigated institutional factors affecting the performance of the Employment Service (ES). The focus was on (1) organizational characteristics conducive to high performance in state ES agencies and their local operations and (2) the external linkages of the ES with state and local politics, other agencies, and the regional and national offices of DOL. The report was based on field research conducted during 1976 in a sample of nine state employment security agencies (SESAs), six regional offices and the national Office of Employment and Training Administration (ETA).

Findings

SESAs with high performance tended to differ systematically in their organizational structures and style with low performance SESAs, and these differences appeared to be an important cause of performance variation. Optimizing agencies were characterized by:

- A clear and consistent sense of mission, with placement the primary objective.
- Innovative and entrepreneurial professional leadership.
- An open internal atmosphere and considerable lateral and upward communication.
- Wide supervisory span of control and few organizational levels.
- Considerable delegation of responsibility to service delivery levels.
- "Lean" district and central office staffing.

- Dispersal of service delivery staff into many small offices.

- Close and informal relations with employers.

SESA's differed in their adaptiveness to change and their receptivity to Federal assistance.

The generally low performance of ES offices in urban areas seemed due in part to organizational factors. Although many metro operations are inevitably handicapped by an environment of high unemployment and stagnant growth, some have significantly improved their performance by dispersing staff to "satellite" or "mini" offices and by other innovations.

SESA linkages to state level politics and other agencies were a secondary but important influence on ES operations. Although SESA's received little budgetary or legislative oversight, state politics and government often imposed constraints such as:

- Disruptive political intrusions, which were found more often in SESA's headed by single executives rather than commissions.

- Restrictions on ES salary levels due to state budgetary constraints.

- Civil service systems that hired or promoted on non-merit grounds and constrained efficiency and flexibility.

- Public service unions which had effects similar to those of civil service systems.

- Sub-optimal local office locations due to political interference or the policies of state general services departments.

SESA linkages to local level politics and other agencies were another secondary but important influence on ES performance. Local government could present important constraints or opportunities for local ES offices in the areas of:

- Office location: Communities typically resisted the closing or relocation of offices.

- PSE positions: Local offices of optimizing SESA's typically sought PSE slots and used them productively. Sub-optimal agencies tended to use PSE personnel less effectively.

- Participation in CETA: Optimizing SESA's in favorable environments usually acquired a large role in local CETA programs. Their arrangements with prime sponsors tended to benefit their performance as measured by the RAF. Sub-optimal agencies usually obtained less work and profited less from it. This was especially true in depressed metropolitan areas where prime sponsors favored a more heavily developmental approach.

The USES has limited ability to guide and assist SESA's because of organizational problems of its own. The most important are:

- Limited program expertise on the part of Regional and National Office staff due largely to the HRD (human resource development) legacy and little recent recruitment from state agencies.

- National Office problems such as a history of organizational fragmentation and loss of direct contact with SESA's.

- Regional Office problems such as Federal representatives and OPTS units that lack ES expertise and operational experience at the service delivery level.

Political constraints and policy issues at the National level must be dealt with if the ES as a whole is to improve. The most important are:

- Political intervention by state agencies which often have used Congressmen or other intermediaries to promote their bureaucratic interests.

- Enforcement functions which are contrary to the main labor exchange mission.

- RAF incentives that currently may cause SESA's to invest less attention and resources in troubled metro operations.

- Identification of the appropriate role for the ES under such proposed innovations as welfare reform or guaranteed jobs legislation.

COOPERATIVE PLACEMENT SERVICES: Cooperative Employment Service - school programs are arrangements in which the schools combine their guidance and training facilities with the counseling services, occupational information, and placement resources of the public Employment Service to assist in youth employment. The Employment Service's affiliation with the schools began in the 1930's in response to the need for more effective youth employment services. During the depression, with thousands of youth unemployed, the ES offices were deluged each year by additional thousands of high school graduates seeking work. To alleviate this problem, the ES made arrangements with the schools to provide counseling and job placement services to prospective graduates while they were still in school. This arrangement provided more adequate employment services to youth as well as cut down the cost of the ES.

The ES cooperative program first began on a national basis in the 1950's. Due to the scope of already existing services and each locality's needs, the growth and development of cooperative programs varied from state to state. In addition, cooperative programs have not had specific funding. Their numbers have peaked and dropped, according to budgetary demands and policy and priority changes at the national, state,and local levels.

At its height in 1963, the ES-school program covered nearly 11,000 or 50% of the U.S. high schools and served about 600,000 prospective graduates. In 1974, a special survey obtained through a regional office of the Employment and Training Administration indicated that the number of cooperative ES-school programs had dropped sharply -- operating in about only 4,000 or 20% of 20,000 high schools (USES, 1977).

Renewed growth of ES-school programs may be realized in the near future. FY '78 national ES guidelines to state offices call for a 15% increase of FY '77 levels of youth placements (USES, 1976). State ES agencies are encouraged to expand, develop,or reemphasize special activities for youth, such as the ES-school cooperative program, to meet this objective.

Cooperative ES-school programs offer youth a variety of employment-related services. Types of services provided are similar to those found in any local employment office: guidance, counseling and testing services, occupational information, placement, job adjustment,and follow-up. These services are performed jointly by the schools and the Employment Service.

Services provided in the cooperative program often include the administration of the General Aptitude Battery (GATB). The GATB tests for nine basic abilities -- verbal, numerical, spatial, clerical, mechanical, form/perception, motor coordination, general learning,and finger dexterity -- and relates these skills to more than 600 job titles.

The services offered through the cooperative program usually follow a pattern throughout the school year:

- initial counseling and aptitude testing;
- group guidance sessions in occupational information and job seeking techniques in the fall and winter;
- subsequent counseling to discuss and focus on job possibilities in the spring; and

- employer interviews in the spring and summer.

Experience has shown that such a year round approach offers youth several benefits. Graduates have more time and opportunities to explore and test vocational choices and to develop job-seeking skills. This process can help to avoid hasty and uninformed employment decisions. Seniors can also obtain more personalized employment help throughout the school year. Otherwise, recent graduates must compete with hundreds of students who crowd the ES offices seeking summer jobs in June and July.

Cooperative arrangements allow students who might otherwise be excluded to take advantage of the services of the ES. In many situations, students are not permitted to visit the Employment Service offices during school hours. Other students have part-time jobs whose schedules do not allow them the time to visit ES and become familiar with its services.

The cooperative program also affords youth an opportunity to take advantage of a wide variety of Employment Service materials concerning occupations and career information. A "Job Guide for Young Workers" and "Occupations in Electronic Computing Systems" are some of the types of information available through the ES. The ES, within the schools, also provides useful resource functions in planning and carrying out Career Day conferences and career education activities.

Another potential student benefit from school-based ES services is better job placements. By being in the schools, the ES counselors have easier access to a student's academic record. To make adequate placements, the ES counselor needs this information as well as job market and occupational data.

Although all youth can benefit from a cooperative ES-school relationship, dropouts are a special group that can be served by such a program. These youth often need special guidance and counseling to understand the potential work value of a high school diploma. By being in the schools, ES counselors can work with school staff to urge the potential or actual dropout to complete his/her education. In a number of instances, the ES counselor has assisted in motivating youth to return to school or to enroll in training courses.

Another type of dropout assisted by the ES-school program is the youth with little academic potential. A number of special reports made by the ES indicate that these youth can do a great variety of work in the semi-skilled, unskilled, and service fields, as well as in many clerical and agricultural occupations. With selective placement techniques, the ES has been able to place such youth in a variety of both blue-collar and white-collar occupations.

The ES-school relationship has helped the schools in their organized work-study and cooperative education programs. While the schools supervise the work experience, the ES assists the schools in locating suitable work opportunities, selling the program to employers, and assisting in the placement.

Cooperative arrangements can also provide the schools with current job market information. The ES, through its job development and job market activities, is well aware of job opportunities for youth. This knowledge is invaluable in planning school curricula and expanding or contracting school training facilities and content.

There appear to be many advantages for both students and schools in a cooperative ES-school program. A survey of school officials pinpointed the following benefits:

1. provides counseling by trained and experienced personnel who are thoroughly acquainted with the local employment situation;
2. serves as a means of interesting prospective employers in students who will be graduating;
3. makes vocational information presented by the schools more accurate;
4. helps vitalize the school curriculum;
5. helps make the academic community more aware of problems facing young people who are not going on to college;
6. makes members of the faculty more aware of the need for presenting vocational implications of their respective courses; and
7. encourages some potential dropouts to stay in school until they graduate (DOL, 1969).

Cooperative Placement Program, Washington, D.C.*: The District of Columbia cooperative placement program consists of a network of mini-job service centers in 12 public high schools which provide labor market and occupational information and placement opportunities to in- and out-of-school youth. The centers, administered by the D.C. Manpower Administration, serve student needs in the senior, junior, vocational, and special education high schools within a designated geographic area.

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* Unpublished information furnished by the D.C. Manpower Administration.

Employment Service counselors place students in part-time and summer jobs, while graduates and noncompleters are assisted in finding full-time employment. The ES counselors, often working in conjunction with school guidance counselors, also organize seminars to acquaint students with the work world. The seminars provide resource people and occupational information to help students gain realistic outlooks on career choices. Occupations explored include carpentry, medicine, and public service positions.

In Fiscal Year 1976, the Employment Service registered 40,683 youth filing new and renewed applications and placed 15,859 individuals. Figures in Fiscal Year 1975 were 45,679 and 20,842 respectively.

In-School Placement Project, Wisconsin*: The In-School Placement Project is a cooperative venture of the Vocational Studies Center of the University of Wisconsin, the State Department of Public Instruction, and the Wisconsin Job Service. Together, the three groups have brought counseling, career planning, and job placement services to about 25,000 students in 140 schools. Each school is staffed by a team of specialists, including a guidance counselor, a vocational education coordinator, a Job Service placement specialist, and, on occasion, another teacher.

The program was designed by the University of Wisconsin, which is also assisting in the evaluation process. The Department of Public Instruction is responsible for in-service training, equipment, and extended contracts for school personnel who are involved. The Job Service, jointly financed with state and federal money, supplies the placement specialists.

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* This description is taken largely from "Wisconsin Schools and the Job Service Team Up to Prepare Youths for Work," Manpower and Vocational Education Weekly, September 22, 1977, p. 9.

The In-School program's four components are designed primarily to aid potential dropouts and the 53% of high school graduates who do not go on to college or vocational school. Phase one concentrates on job search preparation and helps students learn how to prepare resumes, complete job application forms, and participate in a job interview. Career education is a second component, helping students learn how to be successful on the job and providing opportunities for part-time work experience. Students are also counseled and provided with labor market information geared to their own interests and abilities. Finally, efforts are made to place graduating seniors into full-time jobs. Openings are compiled from computerized Job Service listings and directly from employers. The media, employer contacts, and mass mailings are used to publicize goals of the program and search out more job opportunities.

One advantage of the program is its flexibility. In larger schools, for example, the guidance/placement team is available all the time, whereas smaller schools often share a team. Each team works closely with a local advisory committee made up of community groups, parents, students, and school administrators. The committee offers advice on job placement, gaining community support, and suiting school curricula to local labor market needs.

Though evaluation data are still sketchy, during the first six months of the program, when only 57 schools participated, it enrolled 11,600 students, provided assistance to 3,000 more, and was responsible for 2,664 placements.*

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* The preceding narrative on placement services was based, in large part, on Job Placement Services for Youth, prepared by the Work-Education Consortium Project, National Manpower Institute, March 1978.

Guidance and Counseling

Although there is much discussion of how effective current guidance and counseling programs are, there are few empirical studies because of the the difficulty of measuring what are often highly individualized approaches taken by counseling professionals. As noted in Volume 1, Part I, most of the literature on guidance and counseling focuses on the role of guidance personnel and on discussion of the effectiveness of guidance and counseling strategies as measured through various national surveys.

Summaries of two major surveys are presented here, as well as brief descriptions of several case studies conducted by the American Institutes for Research in 1973. These case studies were part of a series of thirteen conducted by AIR's Youth Development Research Program for the U.S. Office of Education. The case studies were part of a larger undertaking whose purpose was to examine the practical career guidance, counseling, and placement which were being provided to noncollege-bound secondary level students. As part of this effort, programs which were making an illustrative attempt to deal with the particular needs of noncollege-bound youth were identified and described in detailed case studies. In many cases, although formal evaluations had not been conducted, programs were deemed to have been effective, based on the information offered both by the program operators and participants and on first-hand observation by the AIR researchers.

Case Studies in Practical Career Guidance, American Institutes for Research, Palo Alto, California, June 1973.

The following summaries, taken in large part from the original reports, describe several of the programs and their impact.

Career Guidance Program, Hood River Valley High School, Hood River, Oregon, Thelma J. Scott, June 1973.

The Career Guidance Program at Hood River Valley High School is an integral part of the total school plan. The purpose of the program is to aid students in establishing realistic goals. The student, parents, guide (a staff member), and guidance resource person (a counselor) constitute a team for planning the student's future education. The overall goals of the program are to allow students to: (1) develop learning skills and acquire the basic knowledge necessary for performance within society; (2) pursue interests and aptitudes leading to the development of an in-depth competency based on aptitudes, interests, and needs -- certifying students' readiness for placement beyond high school (college, vocational/technical training, or job entry); and (3) progress at their best rate and employ their most effective learning style according to the task in which they engaged.

Major community involvement comes in the area of providing students with on-the-job experience relevant to their career goals. That is, businesses such as the telephone company and small retail stores provide students with the job experience they need to obtain higher skill levels or more detailed skills that the school cannot possibly provide. There has also been repeated approval of local school budgets by the Hood River community to support the goals of the school plan. Interested citizens have devoted many hours of volunteer work such as serving as members of community advisory committees.

Impact and Evaluation:

Although the evaluation aspect of the guidance program has not been as extensive as the staff would like it to be, there have been several follow-up studies within the past years. Yearly follow-up studies are conducted for all graduates to find out if they are doing something related to their career cluster choice. Results of one study conducted by the HRVHS staff and guidance counselors (October 1972 survey) showed that students feel more guidance is available to them that was the case one and one-half years ago. Students were impressed with receiving more attention from their guides and indicated guides really cared about guidees. Briefly summarized, student response toward the guidance program indicated that: (1) the school offers a better guidance program than other schools students had attended, (2) the guide system is moderately effective, (3) students feel free to express opinions in guide groups, (4) individual attention is almost always given, and (5) guides show concern toward the student as a person most of the time.

The AIR representatives were impressed with the students in terms of their ability to proceed through such a flexible and innovative total school plan at HRVHS. Several students indicated that the guidance program had been beneficial to them in terms of helping them to develop decision-making skills. Most impressive was the fact that they perceived that guidance was available when it was needed. Because of the training that guides receive and the way the program is managed, time is not spared for guidance. Rather, guidance is the main function and purpose of the program and is available at all times. Counselors and staff members in the Career Guidance Program seem to feel that their ability to effectively establish close relationships with students has been a great asset for achievement of the program's goals. At the same time, they express a desire for more training for the guides.

The program's goals appear to be clearly and consistently perceived by the total school staff, district, and community. It is recognized that students need guidance in developing decision-making skills and exposure to the world of work. The general consensus was that the program has had a positive impact on its students and that staff members were using the available resources necessary to implement the school's philosophy. Also evident is the fact that staff in the guidance program and HRVHS work together as a team to achieve the district's philosophy.

Computerized Vocational Information System, Willowbrook High School, Villa Park, Illinois, Carol Ann Arutunian, June 1973.

The Computerized Vocational Information System (CVIS) at Willowbrook High School uses the computer as a tool to help each student explore a wide range of occupations and educational opportunities, with some feedback from his/her own record of ability, achievement, and interest. CVIS is not designed to replace counselors but to serve as a technological tool that assists students and counselors in collecting and sorting information before the career decision-making stage. CVIS provides information on command dealing with occupations, local entry jobs, local apprenticeships, military opportunities, local technical and specialized schools, area community colleges, four-year colleges and financial aid for further education.

The goals and objectives of the program are:

1. Students who use the CVIS system will perceive a larger number of occupations as possible options after use than before use.

2. Students who use the CVIS system will select an educational-vocational level after use which is in greater congruence with objective data about school ability and achievement than that selected before use.

3. Students who use the CVIS system will have greater range and accuracy of information about tentatively chosen occupations after use than before.

4. Students who use the CVIS system will exhibit increased vocational maturity as measured by the scales of the Career Development Inventory, as a result of using the system.

Impact and Evaluation:

Summative evaluation data have been collected on CVIS over the years of its operation. In a study conducted in 1971, most students gave favorable response to the system in its offering of guidance information. About two-thirds of the students have an occupation in mind when they come to use the system. The system therefore does not do much to change or enlarge the choices of these students. Only a small fraction who come to the system without a choice lack one or still feel confused after using the system. Three quarters of the students feel that CVIS does a good job of giving information.

Two studies have contrasted effects of using CVIS with those of using a counselor for the same purpose. Melhus (1971) structured such a contrast by asking his CVIS users to use the vocational exploration branch only once and asking counselors to interview students in their group about their vocational plans and to give them the best attention possible thereafter. Melhus found that high-ability students showed no difference whether they used CVIS or saw a counselor. With low-ability students, the group with counselor attention made greater progress in crystallizing their plans, which indicates a student's ability may have some bearing on the contrast.

Price (1971) did a similar comparative study using the course selection feature in CVIS. No significant differences in course information, evaluated selections, or course changes or grades over the ensuing year appeared with regard to treatment.

Students participate in the evaluation process. Some scripts have evaluation items at the end to which students respond at the terminal. Also, questionnaires are distributed yearly to a random sample of users, and evaluation reports are beginning to come in from other sites. The results of these evaluations indicate that students have favorable responses to CVIS (91%); students feel that CVIS does a good or fairly good job of providing information needed about occupations (76%); and students feel that CVIS does a good or fairly good job of relating ability, grades, educational plans, and interest to occupations (74%).

The study concludes that CVIS is effective; its administrative systems are used by high school principals and their assistants in the daily management of secondary schools organized for more individualized education.

Guidance systems are used by students who give them credit for helping them to make choices but indicate that they are not sufficient to help them clarify initial decisions when choices have been made and implementation information is needed. Counselors find these systems effective in relieving them of responsibility for information-giving about education and occupation. Counselors like the added time that they can give to individual counseling or group work of their choosing. The system does not cause much change in occupational choice, but it does increase vocational maturity of students and the accuracy and range of occupational information they possess. Finally, the course selection program achieves results that equal those of counselors.

Kimberly Guidance Program, Kimberly High School, Kimberly, Idaho, Carolyn Helliwell, June 1973.

The Kimberly Guidance Program is an example of the type of program that can be implemented in a small rural school district. Teachers aid the guidance counselor by introducing career development units in their classrooms.

All students in the Kimberly School District benefit from the program, which is directed by the district's part-time counselor. Teachers at each grade level in the three schools of the district present career development units to their classes. These units require the student to make decisions related to everyday living, educational planning, and occupational outlook. Teachers also consult the counselor on the problems of individual students.

Thirty-five classroom guidance units for career development were written by the teachers and counselor for the Kimberly guidance program. Within each unit is a statement of its purpose, suggestions to the teacher for implementing it, suggested student activities, and a list of available resource materials. The units are broad, flexible, and easily correlated and integrated with new experiences. Students' learning experiences are not confined to the classroom, but extend into the community.

The goals, objectives, and outcomes of the Kimberly guidance program are as follows:

> The first general objective of the small school guidance program is to develop a model or exemplary guidance program for the small rural school so that other educators may examine the program with the view of introducing similar innovations at other schools.
>
> The second major and overriding objective is to design and implement a guidance service program that is developmental in nature and serves the interests of students in grades kindergarten through twelve.
>
> A third key objective is to introduce a guidance attitude into the total functioning of the school -- its clubs, its curriculum and the work of the individual staff members. Every teacher may be seen as a counselor to students in the program and every teacher hopefully will use the class activities in the accomplishment of the total guidance function.

Impact and Evaluation:

The Kimberly guidance program has not been formally evaluated, but the counselor in charge of the program evaluates it in a number of informal ways. Follow-up studies of each graduating class since 1967 have been conducted, and the percentage of each class entering college, vocational-technical training, the military, or employment has been calculated. Student progress in the Kimberly guidance program is illustrated by the fact that the student dropout rate has decreased from 9% to 5% since it was instituted, and by the large number of students who have obtained further education or training and who have obtained scholarships or financial aid. A random sample of individuals representing a cross section of professional leaders, university professors, high school and elementary teachers, parents, businessmen, and students were asked to express their opinion of the program. All of these opinions were extremely positive. In addition, the counselor examines the checkout sheet for materials in the guidance room to see if students are using them. She also evaluates the reports produced in the English classes, using the guidance units to determine how extensively students have explored career areas, if they have evaluated their abilities and interests, and if they have related the results of their evaluations to the world of work. All of these data lead the counselor to believe that the three general objectives of the Kimberly guidance program have been achieved. The AIR representative felt that the guidance program is effectively serving most of Kimberly's high school students. Every individual interviewed felt that the program was worthwhile, effective and should be continued.

Summary of Vocational Guidance in Secondary Education: Results of a National Survey, Robert E. Campbell, Center for Vocational and Technical Education, Ohio State University, Columbus, Ohio, 1968.

Nature of Study

A national survey of vocational guidance in secondary education was conducted in the fall of 1966. The survey was designed to (1) describe the present status of guidance in public secondary schools in terms of services, counselor functions, and student contact; (2) provide a reference point for future surveys; (3) compare the views of school administrators, counselors, teachers, students and parents on guidance issues; (4) compare guidance programs by type of secondary school (5) identify needed changes in professional counselor education; and (6) identify needed research and program planning. Six types of public secondary schools were surveyed: urban comprehensive, rural comprehensive, urban general academic, rural general academic, urban vocational, and area vocational-technical. A total of 6,484 completed questionnaires were obtained from principals, counselors, teachers, parents and students representing 353 schools in 48 states. The sample included 324 principals, 308 counselors, 1405 teachers, 1409 parents and 3038 students, 39% of whom were in vocational education, 41% in college preparation, and 20% in general education.

Findings

The survey findings were reported in 62 tables. Detailed comparisons were made both by type of respondent and type of school as well as broader analyses of major issues. Some of the major findings were as follows:

Guidance services. Counselors typically devoted the largest block of their time to counseling with individual students (a median of 40 percent) and budgeted the remaining time in small portions to a large range of guidance activities. The largest block of individual counseling was related to college education. In most instances, the counselor was greatly overextended in attempting to fulfill guidance service expectations. Counselors reported a median ratio of 380 students per counselor.

Student utilization of guidance services. Counselors reported that educational guidance was sought most frequently, followed by vocational guidance and personal adjustment counseling. Students indicated that they have obtained guidance from many kinds of persons other than the guidance counselor, but most frequently from their teachers, parents, and friends. Although students were aware of the availability of guidance services within their school, there was a marked discrepancy between services available and services used; much smaller proportions of students used the services. Seniors who had been in the same school for three of four years reported a median of four individual counseling conferences for all years. The median length of individual conferences was 16 minutes.

Pre-entrance guidance of students for vocational programs. Although both teachers and counselors assisted in helping students enter vocational programs, in most schools no one assumed the prime responsibility for this task. Other than student interest, there was no consensus among counselors on criteria used in the admission of students to vocational programs.

Program differences by type of school. For most guidance services, each category of respondent was internally consistent across types of schools in the degree to which they endorsed the various services. When a difference did occur, it typically occurred for the cluster of services pertaining to "outside the school" activities, e.g., conferences with potential employers and job placement. Area vocational schools gave more support to these services than the five other types of schools. The findings suggested that schools should be encouraged to shape their own individual guidance programs as a function of their student needs and that no attempt should be made to impose a standard model on all programs.

The role of teachers in guidance programs. There was close agreement between teachers and counselors on the guidance services in which teachers "could" and "do assist." Teachers reported that they "could assist" more than they are currently doing. At present only a small minority assist with specific services. To increase teacher involvement, at least two problems would have to be solved, i.e., the integration of class and guidance activities and the development of classroom guidance materials.

Needed changes in guidance programs. A number of needed changes were proposed by the respondents. These included, for example, a reduction of student-counselor ratios to 200:1 or less, enlargement of guidance staffs, increased services, and improved facilities. Anticipated changes were far fewer than suggested changes, implying that both principals and counselors do not anticipate fulfilling their program needs soon.

The Role of the Secondary Schools in the Preparation of Youth for Employment, Jacob Kaufman et al., Institute for Research on Human Resources, Pennsylvania State University, University Park, Pennsylvania, February 1967.

Nature of Study

The general objectives of this study were two-fold. The first was to study and assess, in their actual settings, public (state and federal-aided or reimbursed) vocational secondary school programs and the extent to which they are meeting the needs of the students and the communities. The second was to assess the vocational and technical education curriculum in the secondary school when compared with other high school offerings that "feed into the employment stream": i.e., college preparatory curriculum graduates who do not go on to college and graduates from the general curriculum.

Findings

The typical counselor observed in this study was involved 10 percent of the time in keeping records, 50 percent in conducting interviews, 8 percent in administering tests, 2 percent in handling disciplinary problems, 19 percent in consulting with teachers, and 11 percent in other general activities. The average ratio was 441 students to one counselor in the senior high school and 497 to one in the junior high school.

There was little evidence that achievement tests (other than college entrance) were given at the senior high school level, and few schools reported a program of group testing as part of the senior high school guidance program.

Apparent weaknesses in the aims and objectives of guidance programs were:

a. Lack of provision for disseminating labor market information.

b. Lack of provision for concerted effort to assist youth to achieve desirable (and realistic) goals.

c. Failure to provide for adequate dissemination of occupational information.

In regard to counseling staff, the major weakness noted was the general lack of occupational experience outside their field. Their major strength, on the other hand, was on the item, "Personalities conducive to attracting students." It also should be noted that guidance counselors were not very active in community and civic organizations and lacked an adequate preparation in the interpretation and use of occupational data.

It was consistently found (except in the separate vocational-technical schools) that most of the guidance people were college-oriented and that they depended on the student to take the initiative in seeking information in order to make a vocational choice. In fact, very few counselors interviewed had any education or experience in vocational counseling techniques.

Occupational Information

Comprehensive valid occupational information is an essential component for successful education and career planning. With the rapid changes in technology and the increased mobility of the work force, the horizons of youth must be raised beyond the neighborhood and the work experiences of family and friends, which have been the dominant influences on career choices in the past. In many localities today, however, adequate occupational information is not available either to students or to other groups affecting their career decisions: educators, counselors, employers, and economic development specialists. To be most useful, occupational information should be current, provide local as well as regional or national data, be easily understood, and include: job descriptions, occupational projections, unemployment statistics, job search techniques, and related educational and training programs.

The federal government has recognized the current serious problems in the consistency, reliability, availability, and utility of existing occupational information. Most recently, the Youth Employment and Demonstration Projects Act of 1977 (YEDPA) included authorization at three governmental levels -- local, state, and national -- for projects to provide occupational information to support choice of a career and selection among education, employment, and training opportunities. In addition, not less than $3 million and not more than $5 million for any fiscal year are authorized under this Act for the establishment of the National Occupational Information Coordinating Committee (NOICC) "to give special attention to the problems of unemployed youth." The NOICC, consisting of representatives from DOL and HEW, is mandated to improve coordination, communication,and cooperation in developing occupational information systems to meet the common needs of vocational education and employment and training programs at the three levels of government for persons of all ages and to assist in the establishment of similar state-level committees in each state.

A considerable quantity of occupational information exists, mostly generalized at the national level, and all too frequently not applicable to the specific needs of a particular user. For instance, secondary school students interested in exploring career options need information presented in a manner quite distinct from that which is useful to economic developers involved in attracting new corporate facilities to their regions. One approach to dealing with these varying needs separates those occupational information topics which include descriptive information about occupations, work sites, economic information, and personal traits required for a job from education and training topics, such as postsecondary education and training programs including apprenticeships, and institutional characteristics of two and four year colleges (Stern, 1975). Distinctions are numerous and real.

As yet, there is no one standard classification system for occupations. (The development of such a system is one of the mandates of NOICC.) The Bureau of the Census is working with one classification in publishing employment, unemployment and earnings data.

Within the Department of Labor, the Employment Service relies on a second classification for its operational activities, while the Bureau of Labor Statistics uses two other systems for occupational wage statistics and employment by occupation. Much of this information does not provide the degree of specificity needed for optimal local use.

At the state and local levels, a great deal of information is available through State Employment Security (ES) agencies:

> Among the kinds of data available are occupational projections; occupational employment statistics; special wage surveys; apprenticeship reports; compensation and fringe benefits reports; monthly microfiches of ES job bank opening summaries and other ES job search information; reports of graduate and other training course completions, education and training programs; and the identification of licensed occupations in a State.*

Additional information sources include industry and labor reports and projections for particular occupations or groups of occupations, training needs, apprenticeship standards, etc., and reports from personnel management associations, economic development commissions, regional development groups, and special university or research study group reports, which can be used to modify government data.

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* "Career Information Systems: Standards for Organization and Development." U.S. Department of Labor, Employment and Training Administration, n.d.

I. DESCRIPTIVE PUBLICATIONS

A. Dictionary of Occupational Titles (DOT): The Dictionary of Occupational Titles (DOT) is a guide prepared by the Department of Labor's Employment Service (ES) which is periodically revised to define and describe the job duties and requirements of 20,000 occupations. The fourth edition, published in December, 1977, combines into one volume the previous two volumes and presents a new format from that of the 3rd edition (1965).

All occupations are now arranged in groups based on the interrelationship of job tasks and requirements. For many jobs known by more than one title, alternate titles are also indicated. An index contains an alphabetical listing of job titles.

Industry designations are provided for each occupation. The designation is usually an abbreviation of the name of the industry indicating the type of economic activity with which the job is associated. However, if the job occurs in several industries, the industry designation is the same as the particular type of activity.

DOT information is obtained from job analyses involving direct observations of and interviews with workers and consultations with supervisory personnel. Other sources of information include employers, trade associations, labor organizations, professional societies, and public employment offices.

The information from the DOT can be used to define job duties, career ladders, and occupational skill and training requirements.

B. Occupational Outlook Handbook (O.O.H.) and Occupational Outlook Quarterly: The Occupational Outlook Handbook (O.O.H.) is an encyclopedic guide providing non-technical descriptions on a wide variety of white collar, blue collar and service occupations, and is a basic reference source for career guidance programs. The first edition of the O.O.H. appeared in 1950. The Handbook is now published biennially by the Bureau of Labor Statistics (BLS), Department of Labor (DOL). The periodical, "The Occupational Outlook Quarterly" provides supplementary occupational and job information between editions of the Handbook.

The Handbook is divided into two major sections: The Outlook for Occupations and The Outlook for Industries.

The Outlook for Occupations section is divided into 13 groupings or clusters of related jobs in a single field. Physicians, for example, are grouped in the same section with hospital attendants and other health employees. The career clusters are: industrial production, office service, education, sales, construction, transportation, scientific and technical, mechanics and repair, health, social service, and art design and communications.

More than 850 occupations are discussed in the Handbook. All together, the occupations in the Handbook account for about 95 percent of all salesworkers; about 90 percent of all professional, craft, and service workers; 80 percent of clerical workers; 50 percent of all operatives and smaller proportions of managerial workers and laborers.

The Outlook for Industry section consists of reports grouped according to major industry divisions in the economy. The reports contain job types and employment outlook for the industry.

II. THE STANDARD OCCUPATIONAL CLASSIFICATIONS MANUAL

This manual is the result of an eleven year effort to standardize government occupational statistics by the Office of Federal Statistical Policy and Standards, recently shifted from OMB to the Commerce Department. All occupations are grouped into 600 categories which include and identify by DCT code the greater number of occupations individually listed in the DOT. These categories will be incorporated into future Census tabulations.

III. OCCUPATIONAL-EMPLOYMENT STATISTICS (OES)

The Occupational-Employment Statistics (OES) Program is a cooperative federal-state effort to provide systematic state and substate data on current and projected occupational employment requirements.

The OES was created in response to the findings of the President's Committee to Appraise Employment and Unemployment Statistics (the Gordon Committee, 1962). The report, "Measuring Employment and Unemployment", described the lack of substantive and comprehensive data:

> Except in a general way, we know relatively little about current changes in the number of workers employed in each important occupation and in the occupational structure of industry as a whole...Data on the numbers of employed and trends in employment for specific occupations can provide a basis for estimating future occupational requirements and job opportunities and thus greatly aid in planning educational and training programs and in vocational counseling.

In an effort to meet these needs, the OES Program was initiated in 1970 by the Bureau of Labor Statistics.

Today, the OES Program is jointly run by the BLS, the Employment and Training Administration (ETA),and the State Employment Security agencies. BLS is responsible for technical assistance needs and overall development of the program, ETA administers the funding, and the State Employment Security agencies collect, analyze,and disseminate the occupational employment data.

The OES Program is divided into three components: occupational employment statistics survey, national/state industry-occupation matrix system, and state and area occupational projections program.

Uses of the OES data include providing a basis for employment analyses of changing employment patterns by industry, the impact of technological and other changes on occupational requirements,and the location and number of occupational skills within and among states.

A. Occupational Employment Statistics Survey: The Occupational Employment Statistics Survey is a questionnaire survey of industries and businesses designed to obtain estimates of total employment for nonagricultural wage and salary occupations for each state and sub-state area. The surveys cover the U.S. economy every three years; manufacturing industries one year, nonmanufacturing industries (except trade) the second year, and trade the third. The OES survey began in 1971 with 10 states participating in the program. Currently, (1978) 42 State Employment Security agencies and the District of Columbia Employment Security are collecting information on approximately 2,500 occupations.

The OES survey can be used to analyze the changing occupational composition of business and industry and to project employment patterns.

B. National/State Industry-Occupational Matrix System: The National/State Industry-Occupational Matrix System Program assists in providing a systematic set of national, state,and sub-state occupational employment estimates and projections by industry.

The system is designed to provide a set of 51 (all states and District of Columbia) tables or matrices to present total national and state employment cross-classified by occupation and industry for a specific time period. The present national matrix shows employment in 420 detailed occupational categories, cross-classified by 201 detailed industrial sectors and 6 class-of-worker categories. Matrices are available for 1970, 1974,and 1985.

The data included in the matrix are derived from a wide variety of sources. These sources include the BLS annual surveys of occupational wage rates in the metropolitan areas and selected industries, OES survey data, statistics based on licensing and membership records of selected professional societies, U.S. Civil Service Commission figures on employment by occupation in the federal government, and regulatory agency statistics on specific occupations.

The Matrix can be used to make employment analyses and projections, including the study of the impact of technology on occupational employment requirements to examine the changing utilization of workers by industry over time and to relate occupational supply and demand data at the sub-national level. The system also produces occupational data needed for planning education and training programs.

C. State and Area Occupational Projections: The State and Area Occupational Projections are estimates of current and projected occupational and industry requirements for state and sub-state areas. The program was begun in 1972 by the Bureau of Labor Statistics. Today, State Employment Security agencies collect data with BLS technical assistance and consultation which are used to modify projections obtained through the industry/occupation matrix program. Data are derived from representatives of industry, labor, and government agencies.

The program has a broad scope and includes:

- Research to improve the reliability of estimates and projections of state and sub-state occupational demands.
- Guidance and technical assistance to state staff in using occupational demand and supply data in planning and implementing manpower activities.
- Establishment of computer systems that permit the state agencies to carry out the work related to the development of occupational employment data.
- A communications network that permits states to express their data needs, review and comment on technical and other matters, and access a centralized data processing service.

The projections provide a measurement of the magnitude of change in occupational employment requirements over a specific time period. The data are also useful in assessing the supply and demand of workers in job development studies and in planning training programs.

D. Other: The Employment Service also provides three monthly publications:

- Job Bank Opening Summaries (JBOS)
- Job Bank Frequently Listed Openings (Job-FLO)
- Occupations in Demand (100 occupations most in demand nationally).

IV. CURRENT POPULATION SURVEY

The Current Population Survey (CPS) is a monthly national survey of households conducted by the Census Bureau. The CPS provides data to the Bureau of Labor Statistics for labor market analyses. A significant amount of this labor market information appears each month in the BLS publication Employment and Earnings.

The CPS data are derived from a monthly national sample of 461 areas containing 932 counties and independent cities in every state and the District of Columbia and containing approximately 57,000 households (BLS, 1976). Part of the sample is changed each month to avoid problems of uncooperativeness and to reduce the possibility of a cumulative effect of bias in response. The CPS provides statistics on the civilian noninstitutionalized population 16 years of age and over.

The CPS also conducts 8 to 10 special surveys each year. Topics surveyed regularly include the earnings and total incomes of individuals and families, usual weekly earnings of wage and salary workers,and prevalence of multiple job-holding. Inquiries are also made as to marital and family characteristics of workers, the employment of school age youth, high school and college graduates,and the educational attainment of workers.

Periodic surveys have been made on topics such as job mobility, job tenure, job search activities of the unemployed,and the intensity of the job search.

The CPS provides information on the social and economic characteristics of the total population. The survey is the source of monthly estimates of total employment, both farm and nonfarm; personal characteristics of the labor force; and occupational and earning data.

V. DIVISION OF CAREER INFORMATION SERVICES

The Department of Labor's Division of Career Information Services (DCIS), formerly the National Occupational Information Service (NOIS), is conducting a grants program to encourage the development, maintenance,and extension of state-wide computer-based career information systems (CIS). The DCIS also serves as a clearinghouse of information on current national, state, and local efforts to develop and disseminate occupational information.

The NOIS program was authorized under the Comprehensive Employment and Training Act of 1973 (CETA), Title III, to provide current, accurate, and locally relevant occupational information to aid youth and others making career choices.

Specific DCIS program objectives are:

- To help students learn about and understand the range of career opportunities presently available and likely to be available in the future;
- To help entrants into the labor force become aware of occupations that they would find acceptable and personally satisfying;
- To encourage persons in the process of career exploration and decision making to seek out vocational information on their own;
- To increase awareness of major sources of occupational information for the purpose of acquiring knowledge of occupations and training;
- To provide support for related programs, including career education, career and employment counseling, and manpower and educational planning.

The DCIS is currently funding the development of CIS systems in eight states: Alabama, Colorado, Massachusetts, Michigan, Minnesota, Ohio, Washington, and Wisconsin. The eight state programs are operating under a 3-4 year declining grant. After that, the states will support the programs through fees charged to user agencies and/or state and local contributions. Each state CIS system will disseminate information to schools, employment service offices, and vocational rehabilitation and social service agencies, using such media as computers, microfilm, and audio visuals.

A key element of each CIS is the development of a high quality information base. The occupational information developed by these systems will include: the nature of the duties of the occupation; personal, educational, training, experiential, and legal requirements for entry; wages and fringe benefits; current employment outlook; industries that use the occupation; opportunities for promotion or career advancement; hiring channels; working and environmental conditions; availability, cost, and descriptions of educational or training programs related to the occupation; and sources of additional information, such as resource persons in the community, that can help with occupational exploration and job placement.

Cooperation between the major producers and users of occupational information is essential for the maximum effectiveness of the CIS system. These cooperative efforts include the participation of producers -- such as the State Employment Security agency, the state education system, business, industry and labor groups, and planning offices -- and users such as education, manpower training and social-service agencies,and individuals.

The advantages of such a computer-based information system include enormous information capacity, fast retrieval,and data banks which can be updated frequently. Assistance to counselors in providing labor market data allows them time for more direct contact with clients. User benefits include increased awareness of occupational and educational alternatives.

Problems encountered with the CIS and other computer systems include: difficulties with person-machine interactions, inadequate data inputs, high initial overhead costs, and lack of or insufficient counselor training.

DCIS has recently completed a Process Evaluation Plan to assess how well the state CISs are developing and disseminating information in counseling, career education, and manpower and planning agency settings, and whether they are creating systems that are financially self-sufficient and are establishing effective cooperation between key state and local agencies. Impact evaluations will focus on measuring the effects of the systems on increasing occupational knowledge. A pilot impact evaluation effort, which involves a common core of questions to be used by each of the eight grantee states, is now underway.

VI. OTHER COMPUTERIZED SYSTEMS

Other examples of computer systems include the System of Interactive Guidance Information (SIGI) and the Computer-Based Educational Opportunity Centers (CBEOC). SIGI is a client-operable college-based system with emphasis on value clarification, personal planning, and career decisions. The CBEOC is a city-wide information system which provides information on training programs, occupations and opportunities, financial aid, and even day care facilities.

Other computer-based systems are the Computerized Vocational Information System (CVIS), Educational Career Exploration System (ECES-IV), and the Guidance Information System (GIS). CVIS is designed for grades 7-12 for the exploration of approximately 400 occupations and the various entry paths to them. ESES-IV allows students from 9th grade through college to explore career interests and talents. GIS offers occupational information for personal use at the high school and college levels.

Occupational Information Dissemination Project, Final Report, Carl McDaniels, College of Education, Virginia Polytechnic Institute and State University, Blacksburg, Virginia, January 1977.

Nature of Study

The purpose of the Occupational Information Dissemination Project was to study the current status of the use of occupational information and to recommend ways of improving training at both the pre-service and in-service levels, to help users become better informed about the existence of current and future materials and their importance in helping students make the transition from school to work. The project was divided into three phases: (1) planning (2) data collection, and (3) analysis of data and preparation of report. Major efforts were made to maximize personal contacts with those knowledgeable in the area of occupational information, to collect data from users in fields concerning their pre-service and in-service training experiences, to review related literature, to draw implications, and to make recommendations for improving training and dissemination of occupational information.

Background data for this project were obtained through contacts with users of occupational information in the field, counselor educators, State Department of Education personnel, and independent consultants. A sampling of opinion was obtained from key leaders in the field as well as counselors both in training and on the job. Several hundred professionals from over twenty states were involved through direct communication on the project. An interview guide was developed during the planning phase of the project to obtain data regarding both the pre-service and in-service training experiences of users of occupational information and the means of improving dissemination of occupational information. Visits with community college and secondary school personnel also provided information on innovative local programs, including career centers and a school district computerized occupational information dissemination program operation. Counselor educators and State Department of Education personnel responded through correspondence and personal interviews relative to the project objectives and in informal discussions with the Project Director.

Findings

Evidence from the literature review indicated that research on pre-service and in-service training programs for users of occupational information is lacking. There has been no attempt to seriously address the problem of what both employed and prospective counselors need to know about occupational information and the most effective ways in which they can be trained to gain the necessary competencies to deal with this important aspect of counseling.

The dissemination of occupational information has received considerably more attention in the literature than efforts to determine the effectiveness or even the content and extent of pre-service and in-service counselor preparation activities. Mechanized and computerized dissemination methods have emerged along with an apparent increase in the popularity of student-oriented formats such as comic books, newspapers, magazines, and cartoons. The research has been fairly extensive as to the effectiveness of various techniques, but more study is needed to keep counselors and other users informed of the effectiveness of new techniques that are developed. While there have been some random evaluation studies, there has been no systematic effort at evaluating dissemination methods.

The respondents indicated that their pre-service courses were too theoretical. They suggested that more practical knowledge of occupational information materials and delivery systems was needed and that an occupational information practicum be made a part of all counselor education programs.

Most respondents indicated that they had little knowledge about computerized and mechanized dissemination systems of occupational information from their pre- and in-service training experiences and that they would like to have the opportunity to explore the feasibility of implementing the kinds of systems in their particular locales.

Generally speaking, the respondents were not aware of how occupational information programs had improved as a result of their in-service activities. They indicated that there was a need to provide training that would help to integrate the knowledge gained from in-service activities into their on-going occupational information programs, as well as means of evaluating their efforts and a systems approach to evaluating the ultimate use and usefulness to students.

There was a general consensus that techniques to evaluate occupational information materials have not been adequately addressed in either pre- or in-service training experiences.

Respondents expressed a need for continued demonstrations of much more imaginative production and use of occupational information. A wide variety of approaches should be experimented with and demonstrated to counselors for their use with students and others.

The respondents indicated that more occupational information materials and procedures are needed for working with minorities, women, and the handicapped. Many respondents indicated that their occupational information programs had not been dealing with the unique problems of these particular groups.

There was concern expressed among those contacted in relation to this project that the emphasis on occupational information centers as separate entities in a school setting needs to be curbed. The respondents felt that emphasis should be on integrating occupational information into the school's total approach to career education. This would mean that occupational information would become an integral part of every school curriculum and that student needs for occupational information would become the focal point for the delivery of such information.

In reviewing the occupational information materials that are available to schools, one can only conclude that the complexity of the production and availablity of such materials presents a real problem to counselors in deciding what to include in their programs, in determining the quality of the materials available, and in assessing the value of the materials to their clientele.

Project Implications

There is a very positive climate in the field for improving the process of dissemination of occupational information at the pre-service and in-service levels, as well as at the implementation stage with students.

There is a need for closer cooperation between the Department of Labor and professional associations in the field.

There is an obvious lack of research in the area of occupational information, and what has been done fails to provide a focus for future directions.

Progress at the local level will not be made without some significant financial and professional support from both the federal and state levels.

Community Education-Work Councils

Community Education-Work Councils represent a response to the need for better mechanisms at the local level to help young people move between school and work. Councils are composed of representatives of various community sectors concerned with this transition, including education, employment, labor unions, local government, and service agencies, in order to bring this collaborative front to bear on a variety of planning, coordinating and project activities addressing the specific needs of the community's youth. The National Manpower Institute's Work-Education Consortium Project (WECP) assists local councils in 21 sites to achieve individualized community goals, including developing local youth policies and implementing policy recommendations, improving community involvement in youth transition activities, encouraging better employer-school relations, and increasing the number and effectiveneus of opportunities to combine work or service experience with classroom learning. The WECP is funded by the U.S. Department of Labor and operates in consultation with the Federal Interagency Steering Committee on Education and Work, made up of the Departments of Labor; Health, Education and Welfare; and Commerce.

The 21 councils in the Consortium--20 local councils and one statewide initiative--represent a diversity of approaches to involving the community in youth transition from school-to-work issues. In terms of development, at the beginning of the project a few councils had already been in existence for several years but most were just getting started. The 21 members represent a mix of achievement and experience as well as expectation of future accomplishments.

Regarding the evaluation of these accomplishments, the National Institute of Education has recently issued an RFP for a third-party evaluation of collaborative activities including the types represented by the Work-Education Consortium. It is hoped that the experiences of the Consortium communities will provide a set of models for other communities to examine for possible application to their own youth transition problems.

ACTIVITIES AND PROJECTS: Most of the councils have focused their primary attention on developing a process of collaboration among local leaders that can be supportive of youth in transition, and many of the councils' contributions are in the policy, communications, and brokering arenas. There is, however, clear awareness among council leadership that, in most environments, sustaining the collaborative process requires visible outcomes in the short term.

What follows is a selection of summaries of current council activities. Only those activities for which councils can publicly claim support or in which they have active involvement are listed.

- Engaging Community Resources for Youth

ASSESSMENT OF COMMUNITY RESOURCES FOR CAREER EDUCATION

Oakland, California

A major project was undertaken by the Oakland Community Careers Council with assistance from Community Resources for Career Education of Portland, Oregon, to assess community resource needs and the availability of career education resources in Oakland. The objectives of the project were: (1) to collect information on organizations that use community resources to provide career education services; (2) to collect information on who in the business community might provide the needed resources for career education; (3) to analyze this information; and (4) to make recommendations to the Community Careers Council on establishing a resource data bank and clearinghouse to serve youth agencies and employers. Surveys were sent to 355 service agencies in Oakland and Alameda County, including schools, social, civic, and youth organizations. Three thousand employer establishments were also contacted.

A report based on the data, entitled "New Directions in Oakland for Career Development," has been adopted by the Community Careers Council and will be distributed to local and national organizations and agencies with an interest in youth. The report presents a formula for determining the need for work experience programs and, by extension, the need and means for engaging community resources. This is the first study of its kind to be conducted on a city-wide basis in Oakland.

COMMUNITY VOLUNTEER NETWORK

Gratiot County, Michigan

In May 1974, the Mid-Michigan Community Action Council began to develop an organized network of community volunteers to provide first-hand information to students on careers and the working world. The Council's effort has expanded to include approximately 730 volunteers county-wide and is still growing.

Volunteers participate as classroom speakers, mock job interviewers, and business site hosts for career exploration. All activities are performed in collaboration with the Gratiot-Isabella Intermediate School District and are available to the six Gratiot County school districts. Activities are accessible to local teachers/schools through the Council's DIAL-A-SPEAKER telephone service which matches the need of the student group to the volunteer resources available.

- Opportunities for Work and Service Experience

FIELD EXPERIENCE EDUCATION PROGRAM

Worcester, Massachusetts

As its primary project during 1977-78, the Worcester Area Career Education Consortium is implementing its policy statement urging Worcester area school districts to offer every high school student in the area an opportunity to participate in some form of field experience education before graduation. Implementation efforts have received considerable support from the assignment of five CETA Title II employees to the Consortium staff and from the Consortium's successful proposal to the U.S. Office of Career Education. Direct responsibility for the project is handled by an almost full-time coordinator who is working with school superintendents, school board members, administrators,and staff in the Worcester area to plan for policy adoption in each district and to develop localized implementation at specific schools. Project staff are primarily responsible for identifying and securing the cooperation of area employers, labor organizations, social service agencies,and parent groups. The Consortium has developed a twelve page task force report which summarizes the policy recommendations and current and proposed activities under the field experience education project.

- Employment Awareness - Skills Development

EMPLOYABILITY WORKSHOPS FOR STUDENTS

Gratiot County, Michigan

Since 1975, the Mid-Michigan Community Action Council has been helping to develop and coordinate employability skills workshops for county schools. The workshops give students on-site interview practice and exposure to hiring attitudes of local employers in the students' specific career interest areas. The Council has also developed a "14-hour plan" workshop format currently in use to teach employability skills in county skills center vocational classes and has put together a 60 minute video tape illustrating the employment interview process and employer hiring attitudes. In the 1976-77 school year, the employability skills program was expanded to include the entire senior class of one county school.

- Occupational Information and Job Placement Services

COOPERATIVE EDUCATION CLEARINGHOUSE

California, State of

The Bay Area Cooperative Education Clearinghouse (BACEC) is a computerized job placement service developed to provide employers a one-stop listing of prospective student employees seeking work experience. The service was developed in cooperation with the California Industry-Education Council, the Chancellor's Office of California Community Colleges, and a consortium of San Jose area colleges, business, industry, and labor. The service's data bank contains information on students from six area community colleges seeking work experience, including data on their past job experiences, educational goals and interests, and special skills and abilities. The prospective employer need only call the clearinghouse to have work experience job candidates identified through a computerized "search and match" system. The system places approximately 300 students in work experience slots per year, each potentially worth 16 units of academic credit. Although BACEC currently deals only with cooperative work experience at the postsecondary level, future plans include expansion of the system to serve the secondary school population.

ACCESSING A STATEWIDE OCCUPATIONAL INFORMATION SYSTEM AT THE LOCAL LEVEL

Livonia, Michigan

The Work-Education Council of Southeastern Michigan initiated efforts to implement the Michigan Occupational Information System (MOIS) through the formation of the Western Wayne County Consortium for MOIS. The intent was to link national and regional occupational information to locally developed employment, educational, and work experience opportunities.

The system will be accessed through the use of computer terminals placed at various in-school and non-school sites throughout western Wayne County. Information on the job market will be provided to counselors, placement specialists, teachers, students, out-of-school youth, and others seeking information, work experience, and/or employment. The Western Wayne County Consortium for MOIS and the Wayne County Intermediate School District have combined their resources to develop a MOIS delivery system. Two CETA prime sponsors provide funding: the Wayne County Office of Manpower (WCOM) is the principal source, with the Livonia CETA Office contributing an additional $30,000. The prime contractor for WCOM funding will be the Wayne County Intermediate School District which will purchase a computer and 50 remote terminals and maintain the main computer equipment. The

Western Wayne County Consortium will allocate the computer terminals to sites in the Consortium area and utlize them in conjunction with other industry/education programs to expand the impact on employment and training options for the region. MOIS later will be supplemented daily by updates from the local Michigan Employment Security Commission, the Livonia Youth Employment Service, and other sources. The state MOIS office will provide programming support, including updates on statewide and national data.

- Exposure to Business, Industry,and Labor for Educators

DEVELOPMENT OF A LABOR-MANAGEMENT CURRICULUM

Jamestown, New York

The Labor Management Committee of the Jamestown Area has developed and implemented a training course for local school personnel which incorporates both the concepts of labor-management cooperation and of the quality of working life into approaches for career education. During August 1977, six local teachers were trained with this committee-developed curriculum in a special two-week program. According to subsequent follow-up, five of the six have begun to integrate the curriculum into their normal teaching assignments. Parts of the curriculum are being redesigned based on the experiences of the six teachers. Plans are to make the course available nationally.

TRAINING PROGRAM TO BRING EDUCATORS INTO CLOSER CONTACT WITH BUSINESS AND OTHER COMMUNITY SECTORS

Mesa, Arizona

Project Linkage, which was developed by the Mesa Public Schools' Career Education and Research Development Staff, establishes a 10 day training program for up to 75 education personnel to increase their knowledge of career education through interaction with the work world and working environments, to provide an introduction to the concept of effective utilization of community resources, and to encourage collaboration between educators and personnel from other community sectors concerned with youth. The training program will consist of site visits to community resource centers and businesses, study sessions, and seminars. The Mesa Public Schools' Center for Career Development, Project Transition staff of the Mesa Community Council, the Director of Project Transition, and members of the Mesa Career Education Business-Industry Council are working together to implement the project.

• Council Involvement in CETA/YEDPA Activities

COUNCIL INVOLVEMENT IN YEDPA ACTIVITIES

Bethel, Maine

The Bethel Area Community Education Work Council is involved in several activities relating to YEDPA implementation: (1) the Council participated in an effort involving county-wide planning among school districts, vocational education regions, local government officials, and the county Community Services Organization, which culminated in the submission of a coordinated proposal for subparts 2 and 3 under the legislation to the Balance of State prime sponsor. The effort represents the first unified attempt of the Bethel area to improve its access into the Balance of State CETA delivery system; (2) the Council has been active in trying to bring together counselors of the State Talent Serarch program and enrollees in the YACC program operating in the White Mountains National Forest. This effort is designed to make available to the enrollees access to counseling and guidance services with regard to postsecondary education opportunities, financial aid, and career options; and (3) in addition, the Council is serving as a source of information and application materials for the summer YCC programs in Maine.

PUBLIC WORKSHOP ON THE YOUTH EMPLOYMENT AND DEMONSTRATION PROJECTS ACT OF 1977 (YEDPA)

Erie, Pennsylvania

On November 2, 1977, the Education and Work Council of Erie City and County sponsored a public workshop on the new YEDPA legislation. The workshop was attended by representatives of secondary, postsecondary, and vocational schools, youth-serving agencies, business and industry, and other community sectors. The workshop informed prospective program operators of application requirements and legislative provisions and of ways of promoting community participation in the planning of YEDPA programs. Also, the workshop was the first public event to introduce the Council and its activities to the community and to promote awareness of youth transition issues. It served as a forum for the presentation to the community of the "Erie Youth Employment Charter," which was developed by the Council to provide a comprehensive youth policy regarding employment needs and manpower training development for Erie City and County.

Assessing the Local Youth Transition and Employment Situation

DEVELOPMENT OF LOCAL UNEMPLOYMENT STATISTICS -- A SURVEY PROJECT

Lexington, Kentucky

The Lexington Education-Work Council recently approved a Local Unemployment Information Survey Project, to aid in the determination of local unemployment rates. The survey will profile the area's unemployed persons by location, race, sex, education, training, previous work experience,and aspirations. The data will be collected through a personal interview survey conducted by 10-20 individuals. Targeted for completion by April 1978, the Council looks to the project for (1) local data to aid in planning, (2) establishment of a methodology for determining local unemployment statistics, and (3) community awareness building regarding the extent and nature of youth unemployment in the Lexington area.

SURVEY OF COUNSELOR AND EMPLOYER ATTITUDES

Sioux Falls, South Dakota

Staff of the Work-Education Council of the Lower Big Sioux River Basin are conducting a series of interviews with school counselors from large and small school systems and with employers from large and small business firms to determine attitudes toward work and job applicants, to provide the Council with a data base with which to compare other available data, and to increase the visibility of the Council.

SURVEY OF EMPLOYERS: MANPOWER NEEDS AND EMPLOYEE QUALIFICATIONS REQUIREMENTS

Wheeling, West Virginia

The Education-Work Council of the Upper Ohio Valley, through the collaboration of agencies represented in the council, the West Virginia Department of Employment Security,and local industry, business, labor,and educational institutions, has administered a manpower needs survey to approximately 1,700 area employers. The survey requests information on present and future (2) year manpower needs, as well as on educational and experience requirements for employees. Information was requested by mail, with follow-up phone and personal interviews where needed. Costs of mailing the survey were covered by the Bel-O-Mar Regional Planning Council; names and addresses of employers and envelopes were supplied by the State Department of Employment Security. West Virginia Northern Community College will donate computer time and expertise for the analysis of the data obtained through the survey. In addition, two interns funded under CETA are staffing the project, and office equipment has been donated by the public school system. Completion of the project is scheduled for July 1, 1978.

Results will be made available to all area secondary and postsecondary educational institutions, economic development agencies, and employers. The Governor's Office of Employment and Training plans to use the results of the survey, as well as recommending it as a model for use in other regions of the state.

• Awareness Building and Information Dissemination

CONFERENCE ON THE WORK-EDUCATION COLLABORATIVE PROCESS

California, State of

The California Conference on Career and Economic Awareness, whose sponsors included the Industry Education Council of California and the San Diego Industry-Education Council, was held January 27-29, 1978, in San Diego, to provide an opportunity for educators and business people to take a close look at the work-education collaborative process. Participants learned what others have done collaboratively to ease the transition from school to work and how those efforts were started from representatives of 42 cosponsoring organizations and a variety of speakers and presentations.

There were some 90 workshops designed to share information on exemplary programs. The workshops included discussion of program development and management; staff development; and business-education interaction at all educational levels, elementary through adult. Over 2,500 people attended.

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